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NAVAL RESERVE.

THE question of a naval reserve has of late excited much discussion both in and out of Parliament. On Tuesday week, a large meeting of shipowners and officers of the mercantile service was held in the city, to consider this national matter. The necessity of forming such a force is universally admitted, but as yet but very little progress has been made. The suddenness of the declaration of war against Austria, and the rapidity with which the French army was marched into Italy have not been lost upon England. They have taught us what it is possible to do, and how quickly and secretly it may be done. We have been compelled to cast our eyes around, and to consider what chances are offered to a swift and bold invader. One weak point after another disclosed itself. Some, such as the inadequacy of the military force in the kingdom, have been already remedied; but there are others which still lie open and excite uncomfortable feelings. Among these there is none so important as the solidity of our naval defences. Supremacy in the Channel is a necessity of the first order for England; it is that on which depends our existence as an independent nation. Our fleet was at one time in a state admitted to be defective: it was even questionable whether France might not have seized on the command of the Channel, so enormously had she increased her naval resources, while we had allowed ours to stand still. In respect of the numbers of our vessels, much of the lee-way has been recovered; but there still remains the more formidable and the far more perplexing question how to man them. We have awakened to the consciousness of a danger, against which we are, even now, not adequately protected; for we have learnt to perceive the capability possessed by the ruler of France of suddenly directing an overwhelming mass of sailors against England. One might expect our mercantile navy to prove a great resource in times of emergency, but we know, unfortunately, that sailors enter at all times very slowly into the Royal Navy; that the manning of a single ship is often an affair of months; and that crews sufficient to work a large fleet cannot be brought together without a considerable lapse of time. On the other side of the Channel a very different state of things is found. The Government of France has only a small reserve of mercantile seamen to draw upon, and its naval means for a long war are far inferior to ours; but, for the first onslaught, for a sudden and powerful assault at the commencement of hostilities, its superiority over us is equally decided. Every seafaring man in France is enrolled on the "Inscription Maritime;" he must pass an apprenticeship in the Imperial Navy; he is liable for his regular term of service in it; his name then remains on the naval register, and he can be summoned back at a moment's notice. There is a large force of marines kept in constant readiness for sea. In a fortnight, the Emperor could embark 80,000 or 100,000 men on board his fleet, whilst months would elapse before we could muster such a force, and a considerable portion of it would have to be distributed over every part of the globe.

This constitutes a constant and very menacing danger for England. In former wars against France, an effectual remedy, on the whole, was obtained by impressment. Naval conscription was not then developed in France to the same extent that it is now; and though crews acquired by such a process were necessarily inferior in quality, they were nevertheless equal to those of our opponent. But this resource is now cut off. The right of the Crown to impress seamen

men remains unimpaired in law; but it is certain that the habits and feelings of the country would never endure the violence to liberty, and the brutal and degrading scenes, which are inseparable from impressment. Nothing short of the actual presence of an enemy on our shore would reconcile public opinion to the use of such an instrument. But even if recourse were had to it, it would fail in a capital point; it would not supply trained sailors to the fleet. The men it brought on board would know nothing of gunnery, and would be no match at first for the disciplined seamen of the French navy.

The same defect exists in the whole of our merchant service, in whatever way its sailors might be enlisted in the Queen's service. We were wont, in old days, to speak of the seafaring population of England as an inexhaustible storehouse of sailors for the navy; and even now, the public press often boasts of our 300,000 merchant sailors, and represents this great body as identical with the military strength of the British navy. But there is great danger now in the indiscriminate use of such language. Naval warfare is much more scientific now than formerly; modern artillery demands higher skill. The admirable gunnery to which Captain Brooke trained the crew that took the *Chesapeake* is now universal; and a fleet might be lost before a raw ship's company could be disciplined to the standard of the *Shannon*. A large force of trained men will be immediately required at the outbreak of a naval war; and this our merchant service, full as it is of thoroughbred sailors, cannot supply. The reinforcement which, if war should break out, would be instantly demanded by the navy must be prepared in peace; it is so prepared in France. How to accomplish this result in England is the problem.

A Naval Reserve is indispensable; but how is it to be formed? In one shape or other, the principle adopted in France is the only solid basis on which such a reserve can be raised. The men who are to be efficient men-of-war's men the instant they step on board the fleet, must be passed through the fleet previously. Every other method can end only in disappointment and failure. The Admiralty have made many attempts on a small scale to carry out this principle: coast-guard, coast volunteers, and other such contrivances, may supply good crews for two or three line-of-battle ships when war begins. They have made only one large experiment—the Royal Naval Reserve, which offers a retaining fee of £6 annually to every merchant seaman who will engage to serve on board the fleet if needed, and will undergo a month's drill every year in some training ship, to learn the art of naval warfare and the discipline of the Queen's service. This is an excellent institution, if it succeeds; but will it, or rather can it, succeed? Lord Clarence Paget comforts the House of Commons annually with accounts of progress; but it is meagre and unimportant: the scheme still hangs around the starting-post. Mr. Lindsay, himself a great shipowner, is at a loss to express "his surprise that seamen of the merchant service had not more readily availed themselves of the very liberal terms of the Admiralty; only 5,000 or 6,000 of the 30,000 men required by the Government had accepted these terms." Many old Admirals and Post-Captains treat it as a question of money. If men are slack in coming in, a larger bid of money must be made, and then all the men that are wanted will be got. Now this holds good of the professional sailor, the regular man-of-war's man, who never serves in a merchant-vessel, but takes to the navy as his profession. The number of men who



enter the fleet as the business of their lives, will always depend on the attractions held out by the navy, relatively to other callings; but these are not the men we are now speaking of.

The reserve must be composed of men who serve on board of merchant vessels in peace, and can be obtained, and are adequately trained, for the Queen's service in war. It appears to us that the scheme of the Admiralty, and all that proceed on the same principle, can obtain only a very limited success; they militate against the laws of human nature. They forget that the Queen's and the merchant services, though both composed of sailors, are two completely distinct professions; and it is a capital mistake to suppose that sailors can pass from one to the other with complete ease and indifference. A merchant sailor may be at the top of his profession, looked up to and held in honour by all his mates; place him on board of a man-of-war and he will feel all the awkwardness and the humiliation of a freshman. He knows nothing of its rules and manner of doing the work. The topsails are not hauled up in the same way; the bearing to be observed towards the officers is novel; he does not know where to stand, or what is the meaning of the boatswain's whistle. He has to be taught everything, and this is a position of inferiority very annoying to a man accustomed to lead others in another vessel. There is ample demand for good sailors in the mercantile ports, and ample pay: it is not to be expected that the offer of a few pounds will be sufficient to tempt a man to place himself in so unpleasant a position. He may be spared, it is true, many of these mortifications for a while by learning the duties of his profession in port, on board of a training ship in which there is no regular crew, but only instructors and other freshmen like himself; but he knows that he is pledged to enter a sea-going ship, when summoned, and that when he appears in her he will be a stranger among a highly professional body. His feelings naturally shrink from such a shock, and he sticks to the merchant service.

The method adopted must proceed on the opposite principle. The aim must be, not to bring merchant sailors into the navy, but to pass men-of-war's men into the merchant service. Sir F. Baring had a glimpse of this principle when he remarked, with justice so far, that the practice of discharging a ship's company at the end of three years, tends to nurse a reserve of trained men-of-war's men in the commercial marine, whilst the system of continuous service provided no reserve at all. Our object here is solely to point out the direction in which success in the formation of a Naval Reserve can alone, in our opinion, be sought and found. But amongst other schemes for effecting this object, we may mention one which seems to us peculiarly deserving of consideration, namely, to enter as large a number of boys annually into the fleet as possible, to retain them a certain number of years, and then to pass them into the merchant service. After a time, the latter service would thus become a magnificent reserve of disciplined seamen for the fleet. No professional feeling would stand in the way then; for a sailor educated on board of a man-of-war, in our days, would enter the service of commerce with an immense *prestige*. By such a method, the mercantile service would be restored to what it was formerly, under different circumstances, a real nursery for the Royal Navy of England, such a nursery as no other nation would possess. Regulations could easily be drawn up, which should provide for the elimination of the requisite number of these educated boys each year; and they would be eagerly caught up, it cannot be doubted, by ship-owners. A trained sailor from the navy would commence his mercantile career with a manifest advantage, because he knows all that the merchant service demands, and a great deal more besides; whereas now, the able seaman of the Australian or Chinese trade, when drafted into a man-of-war, labours under a deficiency of knowledge—he is a sailor, and nothing more. That difficulties stand in the way of the execution of this plan, we are well aware; and some better one may occur to other minds. But compared with those hitherto tried by the Admiralty and naval officers, it possesses this merit, that it recognizes the dissimilarity of the two professions, and seeks to efface it practically; whilst the others ignored the fact, and so inevitably ended in failure. Of this proposal, at least, it may be said, *Virtus est vitium fugere*.

FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR.

THE Americans have not yet experienced the full horrors of civil war. Their cities and towns have not been besieged and riddled with shot and shell; their farmsteads have not been laid waste; the torch has not been applied to the accumulated stores of thrifty generations. The wail of widows and orphans, if heard at all, has been faint and low, for few of this helpless class owe their widowhood and orphanage to the war. Little blood has been shed; and the two large armies that are encamped almost within trumpet-sound of each other on the opposite shores of the Potomac, have not come into actual collision. Nevertheless, the fierce belligerents of the North and South have inflicted upon each other and upon their country an amount of damage which not even the boundless resources of a teeming soil and an energetic people will be able to repair within half a century, if ever; and the consequences of which may injuriously

affect the growth, development, and happiness of the nation (or the two nations) to the remotest period of their history. Public debt, and large standing armies have taken root in the New World as in the Old. Already the ominous Income and Property Tax, and duties upon tea and other luxurious necessities of civilized life, to escape the burthens of which in Europe so many millions of people fled across the Atlantic—are declared to be absolutely necessary for the prosecution of the war. Trade is all but at an end. Confidence is destroyed. The payment of debts is systematically withheld; and a general Bankruptcy Law is freely spoken of as a measure of inevitable necessity. The South complains of none of these hardships, for it has made up its mind to achieve its separate existence at whatever cost; but the voice of complaint and remonstrance is loud in the North; and thoughtful men—overborne for awhile by the enthusiastic clamour for war of the rowdy element of the population—are beginning to place before their fellow-citizens a few of the irresistible arguments in favour of compromise which are to be drawn from stubborn figures and the unyielding rules of arithmetic.

A pamphlet circulated in New York draws a picture of the commercial aspects of the quarrel, which in the face of the utter impossibility of the conquest of the South, and the uselessness of the conquest supposing that it could be effected, ought to cause the Federal Government, and the Congress that assembled on the 4th instant, to consider calmly and dispassionately the offer of compromise which the South has made. The writer divides the subject into two parts,—first, the causes which have directly cramped the national resources in the prosecution of the war, and which must continue to do so; and, second, the causes which must of necessity inflate the national expenditure.

The principal features to be noticed under the first heading are,—

1. The extinction of commercial relations between the eleven Seceded States and the rest of the Union.
2. The diminution of American commerce with England and other foreign States.
3. The waste of wealth in the operations of war.
4. The depreciation of public and private securities of every kind.
5. The decline and destruction of confidence, involving the cessation of all remunerative enterprise, and the hoarding of the precious metals.

On the first point the writer states that a sum of *two hundred millions* of dollars, actually due by the South to the merchants of the Northern States, has been indefinitely withheld, and that for all practical purposes the sum may be considered as positively lost to Northern commerce, and all the multifarious interests that grow out of and depend upon it. In the year 1859, the South contributed, as its quota to the general exports of the United States, upwards of 278 millions of dollars. Of this large sum, nearly the whole amount was carried in vessels of Northern ownership, and fully one half was sent from Northern ports, playing therefore an enormous part in the commercial activity of the Northern States, as carriers, holders, insurers, dealers in exchange, and the like. When it is remembered that the annual amount of financial transactions which pass through New York, based on the export of cotton alone, is estimated, by competent authorities, at 500 millions of dollars, it will be seen how vast a reduction in the business of the whole community, as well as in the profits of the banks and the incomes of individuals, must be effected by the interruption of this one branch of trade. The grain trade of the great West, that was but just recovering from the depression of 1857, suffers equally by the ruin of confidence. "We are already," says the writer, "receiving from Chicago, from St. Louis, from Albany, and even from Maine, the first instalments of the coming mischief in this direction. The banks of the whole State of Illinois are practically insolvent; and transactions in the great grain districts are running down to a direct specie basis. The successive suspension of four of the banks of Albany, a point only indirectly connected with the Southern trade, must be interpreted in the same sense with those first symptoms of financial disorder at the West. If any reliance is to be placed upon the lessons of the past and upon financial laws, the complete suspension of the banks of New York, and throughout the Union generally, can hardly be deferred beyond the opening of the third financial quarter of the year, and may occur suddenly at any moment."

The second branch of the subject—the decline of foreign commerce—shows results equally formidable. The writer points to the fact that the total foreign imports at the port of New York declined, between the 1st of January and the 25th of May, 1861, as against the corresponding period of the year 1860, from 95,287,401 dollars to 68,897,214 dollars,—a difference of upwards of 26 millions. In the single article of dry goods the importations for the week ending the 25th of May, 1860, stood at 1,702,345 dollars, while in the corresponding week of 1861, they stood at only 568,903 dollars—a diminution of more than two-thirds. Of the dry goods importation of the week in 1860, upwards of a million and a half were immediately sold, but of the importation of the corresponding week of this year, only 270,897 dollars' worth found purchasers. So that about six times as many dry goods from Great Britain were sold in America in a week of peace as were sold in a week of war.

The waste of wealth in the war—the third branch of the subject—is not to be estimated in figures. No one can tell what it will amount to. The writer of the pamphlet estimates that the Federal army has already cost, “in uniforms, arms, ammunition, equipments, horses, and commissariat, a sum of 30,000,000 dollars.” But this is by no means the limit of the waste. If 200,000 men, working as farmers, mechanics, traders, or in any useful pursuit or industry, could earn each upon the average five dollars a week, or 250 dollars per annum—by no means a high estimate for an underpeopled and fertile country like the United States, where all kinds of labour are in constant demand—we should have to add the incomes that they might have earned in a state of peace to the losses incurred in a state of war, and put down under this head alone 50,000,000 dollars, or £10,000,000. The destruction both of rural and urban property incidental to all warlike operations is another black item in the account, to which is to be added the mischief that will be inflicted, if the war goes on, upon the States of Illinois, Missouri, and Kentucky, by the cutting of the levels at Cairo, and upon those on the low-lying banks of the Mississippi by the same operation. This evil has not yet occurred; but at any hour it may become necessary, for strategical reasons.

The fourth point, the depreciation of the public securities, is obvious; but in America, with an easily excitable people, the depreciation takes place more rapidly and unreasonably than in calmer-minded communities. The writer whom we quote states “that the securities of the National Government were reduced in the very outset of the contest below the level of those of Austria during the first year of the European complication that arose out of the Crimean conflict. The Austrian Five per Cents., notwithstanding the wrong-headedness of Austrian financiering and a debt of 1,000 millions of dollars, and in the face of a chronic annual deficit of from 30 to 40 millions, sold in the London market, in 1854-5, at 91. The Six per Cents. of the Union, now an existing debt of much less than one-tenth of this amount, sell already in New York at 84. The fall in these securities since January has been from 4 to 5 per cent. heavier than the fluctuations of English Consols during the whole war year 1854-5. The bonds of Southern States have lost from 25 to 40 per cent. of their former value; while those of the Northern are sinking steadily, though less rapidly, in price.”

On the fifth point, the decline of public confidence, it is enough to state that deposits are being rapidly withdrawn for business, personal property slips from the public eye, leaving real estate to bear the growing burden of taxation. Capital is hoarded at home, or seeks safety abroad; and funds from the United States are gradually moving into London banks, to receive interest at the current rates there allowed on deposits.

It will be a happy day for the American Republics, both North and South, if President Lincoln and his advisers, and the Congress from which they have asked extraordinary powers will take these calculations into their earnest consideration. The terms said to have been offered by the South are not of a nature to be summarily rejected. Freed from the disgrace and the torment of Slavery, and with a treaty of friendship and commerce with the South, there is nothing that the North can reasonably desire which it may not attain. Self-respect, aggrandisement, and prosperity, all are before it, if it know how to yield with dignity and prudence to the inevitable—and did it but know its own real interests—the desirable separation which the South has effected. To persist in the struggle will be ruin. Worse than that it may be disgrace also.

WHAT THE MIRÈS SCANDAL MEANS.

THE remarkable trial that has just been brought to a termination in Paris is not an incident standing by itself, it is the sign of what is even far worse than itself, the mark of a thoroughly corrupt social system, of a civilization in a state of rapid decay. It will not do to take the Jew adventurer alone, to track him step by step through a long career of tolerably lucky dishonesty, and then at last to show him attaining to a palace, and quickly exchanging it for a prison, and achieving dishonour and disgrace at the very moment when he seemed to have secured wealth and power. That will not do. The Jew adventurer, Mirès, does not stand alone; that is the very feature of the case that most calls for attention. He is not what is termed “an example!” He is, on the contrary, one of many, he is a product of French society as it now stands, he is created by the present condition of civilization in France. He is simply a result, an effect—the causes are other, and are everywhere around.

As recently a very clever writer imagined a study of Blondin’s performances, taken from a view of the spectators, and followed the reflection of the acrobat’s perilous feats in the morbidly-excited countenances of those who ventured to watch them, so the reflection of Mirès’s deeds must be followed in the mind of contemporary France, in order to see how far he stands apart from or shocks, or is, on the contrary, himself influenced by the public sense of the nation. “Every poet,” says Shelley, “bears, to a certain degree, the impress of his time.” But this holds good of other people than poets,

and nowhere more than in the particular form of its dishonesty is the impress of a “time” to be discovered. Mirès was an adventurer; granted! but “adventure” is the basis on which modern French society rests. Amongst our neighbours, at this present moment, it is the very small number who are “born” to what is called a position in society; none have it “thrust upon them,” but the vast majority “achieve it,” and do so by any means, lawful or unlawful. As one thing only in France commands social importance and a “position,” namely money, it follows that money must be obtained—no one asks how? unless, indeed, some unlucky discovery be made as to the means resorted to, in some particular case, to obtain it. The way in which Mirès went to war upon society, and began to storm its strongholds, was the same that has been employed by hundreds and thousands of other people; it was the way to which even the highest born had recourse (for, in the face of the “almighty dollar” that is to be conquered, high and low-born are equal); it was, in fact, the way of the time. Hence the very peculiar manner in which “the public” received the news of Mirès’s discomfiture, and of the successive details which reached it of the conduct of the prosecution and of the conduct of the man prosecuted. The public cried out feebly, and without any energy or conviction, in a conventional kind of fashion, for, in reality, it did not quite know what was expected of it. The public would have had no objection to be “shocked” if it had been proved to it that to be shocked was the right thing, but it was not naturally shocked because it was not surprised. The public was familiar with all that Mirès was accused of having done, and could itself have furnished the details of what it knew he must have done. The public, in fact, had been living behind the scenes; had been doing so for years. It could not act surprise all at once and without preparation. Mirès, we again say, was no example. But is not that a frightful state of things?

If you attempt to figure to yourself Mirès as an “example,” you must destroy all that Mirès succeeds to, all that whereof he is only a consequence, a result. If Mirès is to be an “example,” sweep away Balzac and the civilization which formed him also into being its chronicler; sweep away Emile Angier and his “*Marriages d’Olympe*,” and “*Lionnes Pauvres*,” sweep away Alexandre Dumas, fils, with his “*Demi-monde*” and “*Père Prodigue*!” sweep away what at once portrays and helps to perpetuate the form of modern vice in France; but above all, sweep away the actual money-worship, the idolatry of the metal of the coin itself, a peculiar shape in which human baseness stalks abroad more undisguisedly in France than in any other country in Europe.

All communities, even the most honest, and those in which the standard of public morality is loftiest, acknowledge power, and regard with unquestionable favour the representatives of wealth—that is, the advantages in the attainment of which wealth may help. But the chief characteristic of modern France, that which distinguishes her from all other nations, is that she bows down before the mere possession of the gold, before the mere fact of such or such an amount of coin being heaped up in such or such a spot. She does not require that the money should be represented, but that it should be; it need not have been converted into something higher, nobler; something for which respect or admiration is legitimate. No! it is sufficient that it should be itself, alone. In the eyes of contemporary France, gold is lovely; it is so *in itself*, and the circumstance of a man actually possessing it raises him above other men. In other countries money is a means, in France it is an end. In nearly every country it is an immense advantage to have wealth, because it enables you to procure so many things that lie immeasurably above wealth, yet to the acquirement whereof money is a stepping-stone. In countries where power is cared for seriously, money is subordinate; in France, where no one cares for power, money is supreme.

Perhaps the great reason for this is, that Frenchmen are unused to riches. To be very rich in France, is to be something apart from ordinary mortals; it is, as it were, to be gifted with a sovereign attribute. Whereas, we in England for instance, are so used to mere riches, that the fact of a man possessing them, will not alone suffice to distinguish him from the crowd. “*Eöthen*” says truly, that in no place in the world is a “poor devil of a *millionnaire*, who is nothing else, so insignificant as in London!” There are many things a man can with difficulty achieve in these islands if he have not money; but the bare fact of his having money will be insufficient to make him remarkable, or to give him positive power. The mere possession of wealth, with nothing else added to it, will not make a man “somebody” in England now-a-days; the mere possession of wealth, with nothing else added to it, will make a man “somebody” in France. You may say of such a person in what is termed “good society” in France, that he is a fool or a knave; you will be answered in a tone implying the speaker’s utter ignorance of the enormity conveyed by his words:—“*Peut-être!*” but he has 200,000 francs a year! You may bring proofs of the *millionnaire* you mention having committed a crime; having submitted to a disgrace; having been convicted of cowardice, or lying, or swindling, or no matter what infamous offence. You will not be told that your allegation is doubtful; that there was “a mistake;” that there is room for sup-

posing "an injustice" had been done, &c. No! you will simply have the fact of the man's money cynically opposed to you as a reason why nothing against him should be recalled! "Il a deux cents mille francs de rente!" That is held to be a satisfactory reply to every accusation.

This being the case (and this does not date from to-day, but is the principle of French society for the last half century), how can such a career as that of Mirès be wondered at? He is, we again say, a product of the modern civilization of France. He knew that upon the acquisition of a large amount of money depended for him the possession of actual social power, and he set about acquiring it. It never entered into his head to think of the greater or less purity of the means by which he was to gain his gold, for he well knew that the public had no care for that. The possession of the gold was the one all-important thing, and so thoroughly did Mirès read the French social mind, that he, from the outset, contemplated making "society" his accomplice. And, as far as what is termed official society went—as far as those, namely, were concerned, who either constitute or come into contact with the governing element in France—he fully succeeded. "Imperialism," as it is denominated, may be said, whole and entire, to have joined partnership with Mirès in the work of "making money," by no matter what means. This, in the opinion of Mirès, ensured his impunity, and emboldened him, when the first sign of danger came, to threaten the chief of the State himself, and declare that a prosecution in this case would "shake the very steps of the throne."

Mirès had reckoned without taking into consideration the varied influences which act even upon despotism; its utter unscrupulousness; and its benumbing power on the country! Those who would have connived at Mirès's success, were indifferent to his defeat. The public mind, sufficiently debased to have been ready to bow down before the vulgar idea of money incarnate in the Jew, Mirès, could not be ready to rise in defence of the idea of freedom outraged in the form of the arbitrarily persecuted citizen, Mirès. That which would have favoured his luck, made inevitable his disgrace. But throughout the whole, Mirès and the French public stand united in shame. Mirès can be no "example" in France.

Mirès is the mere outward symbol of a system; he is one of the representatives of what public morals have sunk to in France. Granted that had he succeeded instead of failing, he could have achieved all he set out to achieve, the offences he committed are easily to be accounted for. But then, by his side, and equal in guilt, stands the French public. Crime of every variety, fraudulent or violent, has money for its exclusive cause only in those states where the mere fact of the achievement of money entitles to every other gain. This is the case now in France, and the adventurer, Mirès, is but the type of a "society" whose basis is adventure.

LORD JOHN RUSSELL.

EUROPE and the whole civilized world feel, if they do not know, the value of Lord Palmerston; but it is questionable whether they attach as much value to Lord John Russell. And yet he is a statesman whose name is prominently associated with the triumph of many great questions of our times. He has devoted a long and a laborious life to the service of his country, and is so estimable alike in public and in private, that there are few, whatever be their party or their creed, who do not admire him for his energy, and respect him for his honesty.

But Lord John Russell is so cold in his manner, as not to inspire the same cordiality of regard that people feel for Lord Palmerston. He is not so ready, so frank, so versatile, or so easy as his present colleague and former competitor, and hence his name is not so often upon the tongues of men. But in all the essential attributes of statesmanship—of which mere popularity is neither the plummet nor the test—Lord John Russell stands high, and will take an honourable place in the page of history amid the worthies of our nation.

The report—which is generally believed to be well founded—that the House of Commons, wherein his voice has been so often heard, generally in the support of a just cause and a progressive policy, is to know him no more; and that he is forthwith to be elevated to the peerage, seems to afford a favourable opportunity for attempting to estimate his public career and valuable services. Lord John Russell was a Liberal in politics at that period of the present century when the open profession of Liberalism was sufficient to consign him to royal disfavour. He was a Reformer when Reform was as unpalatable a word in the ears of the aristocratic and courtly classes as revolution or confiscation; and his strenuous efforts were devoted to the cause of religious liberty at a time when Dissent and Roman Catholicism lay alike under an amount of civil disability that made our constitutional freedom an empty if not an insulting boast to one-half of the nation. Though not early in the field as a Commercial Reformer and Free Trader, he came into it at the same time with Sir Robert Peel, if, indeed, it was not his example which compelled that lamented statesman to come to a decision,

and speak out boldly on the question of the repeal of the Corn Laws, at a time when a day's delay might have been productive of incalculable mischief to the best interests of the country, and sown the seeds of a popular disaffection that might have imperilled the Constitution itself.

If the people's bread had been rendered artificially dear by unwise and selfish laws in England, while revolution was roaring and surging upon the Continent, who knows what calamities the country might have had to endure, and what storms of bloodshed our industrious people might have had to encounter, before society could have been restored to that equilibrium of content in which it is the happiness of our day to know, that all classes of our people dwell peaceably together! Lord John Russell, who early devoted the energies of his mind to facilitate the comprehension of this blessing and the attainment of this end, has lived long enough, in and out of office, to see the theories of his truth grow into the facts of his maturity and old age, and to be able to say with a clear conscience, that each and all of them owed something of their triumph to his advocacy. It is no small glory in any man to have his name and character associated with measures on which the welfare of a great people depends, and it must be a peculiar gratification to Lord John Russell, when he looks back to the parliamentary struggles of his youth, to know that, severally and collectively, these great measures far surpassed, in their beneficial results, the most sanguine expectations of those who introduced and carried them; and that, if he had the power, there is not one of them that he would repeal, or essentially modify.

It cannot be said of Lord John Russell, however popular he may have been as a statesman, that he has been a popular Minister. Arrived at the highest station to which the politician can hope to attain—the station of first Minister of the Crown—he grew more of a Whig and less of a Liberal than he had been when out of office, and did more than any of his colleagues to reduce the once great party of the Whigs to a position in which no one could say a good word for it. Lord John has been the Whig, *par excellence*, of our day, and there are so few of the class, that he threatens, or we might say, promises, to be the last Whig left, after the excellent Lord Lansdowne, in the ripeness of his years, shall have been gathered to his fathers. Party in our day has taken a new nomenclature, and men who once called themselves Tories and Whigs now call themselves Conservatives and Liberals, the Conservatives boasting that they are truly liberal, and the Liberals having as much reason to declare that they are as truly conservative as their opponents. What remains of Whiggism is, in fact, the weakest element in the Liberal party; and the removal of Lord John Russell to the Upper House, in leaving the leadership of the Commons to a Liberal not narrowed in his friendships, or his partialities, or his principles, by the Whiggism of the old school, may be the means hereafter of giving to the party a greater degree of cohesion than has lately belonged to it.

THE NEW SULTAN.

NEW brooms sweep clean, and Abdul Aziz seems as if he would verify the proverb. The process has not begun a moment too soon; and if the world may judge by the Hatti-sherif, and by the vigour of the measures which the Sultan has adopted against the Seraskier and other peccant or corrupt ministers of his weak predecessor, there is yet a chance for the salvation, if not for the regeneration of the Turkish empire. No social or any other reform is possible in a State the finances of which are in confusion, and the experience of all times and countries proves that national insolvency, if not prevented by timely re-adjustment of the broken balance between income and expenditure, is but the too certain prelude to violent revolution. The personal extravagance of the late Sultan was beyond all bound and precedent; while his indolence and good nature were such as to tempt high functionaries in every part of the empire, by the prospect of virtual impunity, to imitate his profusion, and provide means for its gratification at the public expense.

With a Harem containing from fifteen hundred to two thousand women—every one of whom thought herself entitled to spend as much money upon her personal luxuries, adornments, and caprices as if she were the prime Sultana and sole wife,—it was no wonder that Abdul Medjid should have lived in a state of chronic misery for want of money. When he had not only to minister to the reckless extravagance of this horde of silly women, but had tastes of his own to pamper and gratify, that exceeded even their's in costliness; when he considered it necessary to his state and dignity to have thrice as many palaces as the Queen of Great Britain and the Emperor of the French, both reckoned together; when he could not or would not contrive to be rowed about in his barges on the Bosphorus without maintaining a positive army of boatmen, numbering at the lowest computation two thousand men, to perform a duty for which fifty or a hundred would have been amply sufficient for regal or imperial splendour; and when every branch and detail of his household was regulated—if such a word can be applied to such gross irregularity—upon the same gigantic scale,—no

one can wonder that Turkish loans were more numerous than productive; that the evil example spread from top to bottom; and that corrupt pashas in remote provinces set at defiance the authority of the amiable sybarite who possessed authority without knowing how to wield it, and plundered the people without either control or responsibility.

The new Sultan has determined to put an end to all these enormities of misgovernment. He has sent the ladies of the Harem into the poverty and obscurity from which they sprang; has declared his intention to maintain but one wife; has summarily dismissed the ready instruments and tools of the late Sovereign's weaknesses, however high and powerful they may have imagined themselves to be; and has expressed his determination to have a thorough and sweeping reform of the finance department in every part of the empire.

It is impossible to praise too highly these good resolutions; or to hope too earnestly that, as the Sultan has begun, he will continue, and not suffer himself to be deterred by any obstruction that may be thrown in his way. Such a task is not easy in any country. Those who have fattened upon peculation, and run riot upon impunity, are not likely to yield to the reform that makes an end of them, without an effort to maintain themselves and their system. More especially in such a country as Turkey we may expect to hear that the Sultan has been thwarted by the great and the small; by positive and negative; by overt act, and by covert inertia; and that plots and conspiracies have threatened both his person and his throne. But with Orientals, to dare greatly is to succeed greatly. The Sultan has only to be ruthless, resolute, and persevering—to keep to the straight line, whoever may suffer—and he will bring the nation to his side, and obtain help from every quarter in cleansing the filth of the worse than Augean stable that Abdul Medjid accumulated, and left behind him.

In other respects the Hatti-sherif, without offending the prejudices or the faith of the Mohammedans, is of a character to satisfy the great powers of Europe. In all his relations to Christendom he promises to walk in the footsteps of his predecessor, to mete equal justice to the professors of every faith, and to found his policy upon those leading principles of international right, without adherence to which the great European commonwealth would be resolved into its elements. This, no doubt, is as sincerely meant as it is palpably just; and if Turkey in Europe is to be saved, these are means to save it. It will still be a question whether any Mohammedan power can, for many generations longer, maintain itself in the heart of a civilization, to which it presents so many points of antagonism. But as empires in our old world take a longer time to destroy than to build up, and as a century in the life of a nation or the duration of a monarchy is no more in the great page of history than an hour in a day in the career of a man, it is possible that Turkey may escape the fate of Poland, if not for ever, at all events for a longer period than the lifetime of the existing generation, or that of its immediate successor. If anything can give it a new lease, it is Financial Reform. And as the Sultan promises this, and will certainly perform it if his life be spared, every friend of European order and peace will wish long life and fresh courage to the new Padishah.

THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN QUESTION—1847 OR 1848.

At the present hour, when the first step towards an ultimate settlement of the differences between Austria and Hungary has been taken, and when the telegraph may at any moment bring tidings of still further success, or of a dead lock in the negotiations, it may not be without interest to know what are the two principal bases on which a pacific arrangement may be made. One is represented by the date of 1847, and indicates the amount of laws and liberties preserved or achieved by a more or less regular and continuous course of political development from early times up to that year; the other is synonymous with a period of revolution and of irregular action—in which whatever was secured was secured by violence, and by the predominance of might over right. From the autumn of 1860 to the spring of 1861, it was believed that the basis of reconciliation between Austria and Hungary would be the public law established up to 1847. The question now at issue is, whether the principle of continuous legal development shall or shall not be sacrificed to the purely revolutionary principle—whether 1848 shall or shall not be the date from which the relations of Austria and Hungary shall start? What it is desirable the English public should know is, that it is by no means the same thing whether the one date or the other be adopted. It is a question of two "Rights" and two "Constitutions," and the confusion is owing to the fact of the Hungarians themselves apparently not knowing which of the two it is they desire.

To make the matter even comparatively clear to the English reader, we must remind him of the state of things in 1848-9. At that period the Hungarians were vanquished by the Central Government. We will leave to every man his opinion as to the manner in which the victory was gained: it may have been gained by the aid of Russia, it may have been contributed to by the treachery of Hungarian chiefs; we will grant every supposition any one likes to raise upon the subject; but the fact—the incontrovertible fact is there, staring us in the face, that from 1849 to 1860 the Hungarians were governed by Austria—governed, as we think, with very unwise harshness, but governed so that practically the ends and purposes of Government were obtained by the governing power; taxes were paid, levies were made, public works were carried on, and order was maintained; and this is certain, namely, that with the army re-organized as it now is, and all the Hungarian troops removed

out of the country, and from under the command of Benedek, for whom their enthusiasm is boundless and unquestioning, it would have been quite possible for the Central Power to go on governing Hungary as it had done during the previous eleven years, and the mere work of government would have been easier than it has been at any period since the Crown invited the Magyars to co-operate with it in the business of governing Hungary. But this distinctly proves the fact that the period of 1848 was a violent revolutionary period, ending in the subjection of the Magyars, and producing, as a result, the hardships endured by them, and of which they themselves so bitterly complain, during eleven or twelve years. The year 1848 in no possible way can be held to mark an epoch of continuous legal development.

The proof of what the consequences of the civil war in 1848-49 had been to the Hungarians, is to be found in the famous "Address of 1857," presented at Pesth to the Emperor, and published (in German and throughout Germany) for the first time early in last month. That address, containing the humblest prayers for comparatively small favours, is sent up to the foot of the throne by the representatives of the rank, fortune, and political power of Hungary, and in it the Sovereign is appealed to in what we should call abject terms, by the very same men (their names are signed at its close) who, a fortnight ago, at Pesth, made themselves most remarkable for their violence. But this shows clearly that 1848 was not then regarded as a date to which the Hungarians could refer as marking any starting point for further claims on their part.

That it was, in the highest degree, unwise in Francis Joseph not to have granted all that the Address of 1857 petitioned for we can have no doubt, and for that, as for other errors, he is now paying—but that is not the subject of our present argument. Our object is to show what it really is for which the Magyars are now asking, and in virtue of what principle they are opposing the Imperial Government and the Crown.

The Vienna Government had for eleven years heard the Magyars declare that their "ancient constitution" was the idol of their hearts; that what they worshipped was the law of their ancestors; and all Europe rang with the cry of Hungary for institutions the grand merit of which seemed to be their age. "Rights eight hundred years old!" was one of the most frequently repeated phrases. By the diploma of 20th October, 1860, the Sovereign restored to the Magyars their "ancient constitution." As matters stood up to the year 1847, so they again stood in October, 1860. The Land-Tag was to be re-convened at Pesth. There was a *judez curia*, or minister of justice, and the whole judicial system of Hungary was in her own hands; there was a *tavernicus*, or home minister, and all the internal administration of Hungary was in her own hands; there was a chancellor and vice-chancellor, and the former represented Hungary in the face of the Imperial cabinet and crown.

Now, was this what the Hungarians *did* want, or was it not? If it was not, they were wrong to say it was; but they began by accepting it, and then using the advantages it afforded them to clamour for something diametrically opposite, and for something which was totally incompatible with the existence (above all, with the new constitutional existence) of the Austrian empire. The "ancient constitution" is one thing, the "laws of 1848" are another, and one is so incompatible with the other, that one is the direct negation and overthrow of the other.

That the Magyars, or a "party" among them, should desire the revolutionary organization of 1848, is perfectly admissible; that Austria, consistently with her own interests, safety, or dignity, or with her absolute duty to the immense majority of the other peoples of the empire, cannot grant that organization to the Magyars is certain. But if it is the organization of '48 that the Magyars do desire, that has nothing whatever in common with the "Ancient Constitution of eight hundred years' standing," in the name of which they have been calling upon the sympathies of the outer world.

We have not space to follow out each detail of the Austro-Hungarian dispute from October '60 to May '61, but, having stated that Hungary began by accepting one form of concessions, and then demanding another distinctly different, we come to the debates on the Address, and to the situation as it now stands. The main points at issue are these:—The Crown said, "Instead of (as formerly) discussing new laws and regulations with the few individual men comprising the Crown Council, I have called my peoples largely to co-operate in the work of government by the mode of representation, and of course I have called you Hungarians with the rest; so, instead of, as heretofore, sending individual statesmen from Pesth to Vienna to expose to the Central Government your wishes, you will have to send deputies to discuss with the deputies of all the other provinces what is advisable in the interests of the whole monarchy, and also of each several part of it." The real difference was that what had hitherto been done arbitrarily and silently by a few, was now to be done by public discussion, among the Representatives of the entire empire. The principle was the same: the mode of application alone differed. But this brings us face to face at once with the entire difficulty that at this very moment is, or is not, to be solved by the Austro-Hungarian Conferences at Vienna, conducted between the Representatives of Hungary, on the one side, and, on the other, the Council of Ministers representing the entire empire.

Is the basis to be 1847, or is it to be 1848? There lies the question. Is Hungary desirous of recovering rights and privileges, susceptible of modification no doubt, but consecrated by time, like the constitution of these realms? or is she simply enamoured of revolutionary theories, to put which in practice (to the detriment of other races) she could only have a full right had she been victorious over Austria, and won the power of absolute triumph by military success?

Up to 1847 the Pragmatic Sanction is the great charter to which all parties appealed, but upon that it is also necessary to say a few words.

It is a common outcry—and it is that of the Diet at Pesth—that Hungary must have all that the Pragmatic Sanction gave her. But she has got it; and what the Ultra-Magyars are asking for is precisely what the Pragmatic Sanction does not give.

The Pragmatic Sanction is not a re-constitution by the Emperor Charles VI. of the relationships between the empire and the kingdom: it is a manner of testament, securing to the female descendants of the House of Hapsburg all that had already been, by the full consent of Hungary, secured to the males. Every act of public law in Hungary proves that, for upwards of four hundred years the crown of Hungary had been transmitted in virtue of hereditary right from father to son in the Hapsburg line of Emperors. The famous

treaty between Frederick III. and King Matthias (1463), or the acts of the Diet under Ferdinand I., or, in short, almost any public document, prove this abundantly; and the next most prominent fact established by these documents is, that the entire monarchy over which the Emperor rules (namely, the imperial portions of it and the kingdom of Hungary) is "one and indivisible," and it is over and over specified (and this in all imaginable forms) that both these facts—the hereditary succession to the throne and the indivisibility of the territory—are to endure "for evermore."*

Now, is it from the Pragmatic Sanction that the new order of things is to spring, or is it from that which makes the Pragmatic Sanction null and void? To us, as far outlying strangers, the solution is indifferent, whether attained in one sense or the other; but all we wish is, that the English public should be more accurately informed upon the fact of there being two solutions diametrically opposed to each other. There is no end gained by believing that we are advocating one system when we are in reality doing our utmost to establish the opposite one. It is well the English public should be made clearly aware that the chief difficulty lying in the way of a solution of the Austro-Hungarian question has been created by the apparent inability of the Hungarians themselves to decide upon what they wanted.

Did they want '47 and their "ancient rights," as all Europe has supposed? or, did they want '48, and institutions resulting from modern revolutionary theories? As the two are incompatible, it now remains to be seen which of the two will prevail. Both cannot. It must be either '47 or '48.

SCIENCE IN THE LAW COURT.

WE have recently witnessed, in the Court of Queen's Bench, a rare array of our most eminent chemists. There was not one amongst the number who has not associated his name with some important discovery in science. Two or three of these men have exhibited mental powers of the highest order; and, not only as experimentalists, but as philosophers, they stand in the first ranks before the world. They were in the law court for the purpose of proving one of two things; either that coal-gas, escaping from a pipe in the street, would flow down into an area, and so enter the basement of a building, and, forming there an explosive mixture, be fired at the burning gas-lights; or that it would not do so. The trial was not allowed to proceed to the end; none of the defendants' witnesses were examined, as early on the third day a compromise was proposed and accepted. This fortunately relieves us from the difficulty which must have beset us had the case gone to the jury. Nothing that we can now say will admit of being construed into a reflection on any of the witnesses; they were, indeed, all men whom we, with the world, delight to honour. It is with the principle involved in this and other similar trials that we have to deal, and not with the men engaged in those trials.

The case of the Torbane Hill mineral is a well known one; twice have chemists and geologists of the highest reputation been brought in opposition to each other, and we learn that there is soon to be another similar display. For what? To determine whether a certain substance is *coal* or *shale*. The questions, Is clay a mineral? is stone a mineral? have furnished several cases for the law courts, and in each case an equal number of scientific men have been brought into court, and, before the judge and the jury, have declared, respectively, of the clay and of the stone, that *it was*, and that *it was not* a mineral. In the law-suits arising out of disputed patents, this condition of things is continually presenting itself, and all rightly constituted minds must feel that the "High Priests of Nature" fall to the level of ordinary humanity, whenever, under the existing circumstances, they place themselves in the witness-box.

The investigator of nature has, under all conditions, much difficulty in preventing his mind from being biased by some prevailing hypothesis, or turned astray by a recognized theory. The truth can only be reached by the true, and it has been ever felt that the philosopher must stand apart from the disturbances which move the masses of men—that he must rise above the atmosphere of moral perturbations—and be enabled to resist the influences which sway the world. This will probably appear to many as an ideal view, which cannot be reached; and we shall be told that the man of science is *in* and *of* the world, and that he must therefore partake of all the uncertainties which belong to humanity, and share, even in his investigations, in its mental shortcomings. To a certain extent this is true, and because it is so, many philosophers have exerted their powers to persuade their brethren to avoid those temptations which frequently beset them, knowing that from the moment a man becomes the hired advocate, he loses the power of controlling those faculties which are the most essentially important for the discovery of truth.

In obedience to the rule prevailing at the bar—and we do not see how it can well be otherwise—the barrister asks the scientific witness such questions as suit his case, and it must not be forgotten that he has framed his questions, in most instances, from the written statement furnished him by the man of science. A perfectly impartial statement is thus rendered almost impossible. To take the coal case alluded to—we find, in the mass of scientific evidence given, such assertions as the following:—

This substance is found in the coal measures, it must therefore be *coal*.

Shale, impregnated with bitumen, is found in the coal-measures; therefore it is *shale*.

This mineral is always found with an "under-clay," it therefore is *coal*.

True, "under-clay" is found under shale; therefore this may be *shale*.

It will not dissolve in solvents of bitumen; therefore it is *coal*.

It distils over liquid products, and therefore it is a bituminous *shale*.

It burns in all respects like ordinary Cannel coal; therefore it is *coal*.

It will not form a coke; therefore it is not *coal*.

Those who are curious to examine a large amount of scientific evidence of an equally conflicting character, will be interested in looking over the printed volume of this remarkable case—the question, be it remembered, being yet

to be settled—and examples, in every way analogous, might be given from nearly every patent case embracing a question of science.

The scientific man should not be allowed to place himself in a position where he may be made to give his influence in favour of an untruth. His vocation is to discover truth, to separate it from error; and his duty is, by the perspicuity of his statements, to prevent the advocate from blinding the jury by any of the arts of the profession. As the chemist or the natural philosopher now stands in a court of law, he does not, he is not permitted to "*speaking the whole truth, and nothing but the truth*;" he is transformed by influences, amidst which he appears powerless, into a barrister using the mysteries of science, instead of the mysteries of law, to persuade the jury to decide in favour of his client. But the man of science should give the utterances of nature in the most disinterested manner. The moment a man receives a fee to prove a particular point, he goes to work with perverted vision, he avoids everything which tells against the position he is paid to support, and he exaggerates each shadow into a substantial thing, if it appears to aid the cause. If, as lawyers say, scientific men are bad witnesses, it is because there is constantly a struggle in their minds while they are giving evidence. A chemist in his laboratory is one kind of man, in the witness-box he is another. We never yet saw a scientific man at his ease while he is under examination—often have we seen him dreadfully distressed. This can only be because the atmosphere of doubt which envelops a law-court is not congenial with the spirit of truth which belongs to the investigator of nature.

The principle, at present adopted, is decidedly wrong, but how are we to remedy it? This we feel is, to a great extent, beyond us. We know some half dozen of our most exalted philosophers and experimentalists who will not enter a witness-box. This is a loss to the public—they fail to obtain the advantage of their great knowledge. We shall never secure the services of our greatest men, as long as we place them at the mercy of a man who is profoundly ignorant of their science, and whose study is to lead them astray from the paths of truth. There appears but one remedy. No man of science should ever enter a witness-box. Where the question submitted to a jury involves a knowledge of science; the judge should submit to men selected by himself and the barristers engaged on each side the question at issue. Left to themselves, they should determine, as far as this might be possible, the truth, and the jury should have the advantage of this determination. Relieved from the pressure of that practised skill which is brought to bear on the scientific witness, the probability is that the "whole truth" would be spoken, and certainly all parties would be gainers thereby.

EPISCOPAL IMPEDIMENTS.

A DIFFICULT position must that be which is occupied by an English bishop in the present day. He has to perform about as many offices as ordinarily fall to the lot of some half-dozen different men. Besides being a bishop, according to the spiritual sense of that term, he is at once a large landholder, a peer of Parliament, a judge, a surveyor-general, and, in the way of writing letters upon all sorts of temporal as well as spiritual matters, he is chief clerk of the Church. Such multifarious duties would seem to demand a multiple mind. Whether bishops are possessed of this we will not pretend to say. We can only express our wonder how a modern bishop can get through his work at all; and much more how he can get through it without becoming more a man of this world, than of that kingdom which "cometh not with observation."

As a bishop, in some cases, he has landed estates from which he derives his revenues, and these must require the usual looking after; involving the granting of leases, the securing of rights, the making of improvements, and the seeing that the estate suffers no injury. As a peer in Parliament he has to attend during the session to his Parliamentary duties, to receive and present petitions, to prepare himself to take a part in many debates, to hold interviews with public bodies, to honour with his presence grand dinners, to show himself occasionally at court, and to go through a round of attendances as constantly recurring as day and night. He is, moreover, a judge, and as such, he has to hear and adjudicate upon a variety of difficult cases, without the advantage of the legal training which a judge has received, and with all the odious responsibility falling upon himself alone, if he makes a mistake.

The amount of correspondence which these various functions involve must be as much daily as, in a lawyer's office, would employ three or four clerks. Even in performance of those duties which strictly belong to his episcopal office he has letters to write upon a great multiplicity of subjects; such as the building or the repair of glebe-houses, institution to livings, the sequestration of livings, the salaries of curates, the disputes between them and incumbents, questions touching church-rates, the division of parishes, the erection of new churches, grants for schools, &c.

The thoroughly secular nature of a great many of these employments is our reason for noticing them, and the point to which we wish to draw attention. Is it for the spiritual well-being of the Church that its bishops should be thus occupied? Is it for their own spiritual well-being? Does the incessant connection with secularities tend to fit a bishop for the purely spiritual duties which he owes to his clergy and to the people of his diocese? The clergy, probably, could answer this question better than we; but to us it seems obvious, that this secularization of the episcopal office must be attended with many practical evils. Nothing but the pomp and splendour that now surrounds the office with its dignified circumstance, can hide this from the bishops themselves. The Church itself suffers by it; for how can a bishop profitably find time, or heart, to associate with his clergy as he ought, to enter into all their official trials, and to give them the necessary amount of advice, seasoned and sweetened, as it ought always to be, with sympathy, to cheer and animate them in their holy work? Much less can he elevate them by intercourse to a higher spiritual level. If he holds intercourse with his clergy at all, it can, as regards most of them at least, be only by such curt and cold letters as, we can easily imagine, must nip many a sensitive young clergyman's budding energies, and send him to his duties shivering as if smitten with a moral ague. The incessant secularities of his office must unavoidably tend to deaden a bishop's own spiritual sympathies. Sentiment is trodden out of him; the poetry of his nature, if he ever had any, is a fallen leaf, sere and withered. Nothing remains but a freezing formality. Even if a bishop be a man endowed with a warm genial nature, full of kindly sympathy, which keeps him free from the frigidities of formality, it must

* From the end of the fifteenth century (1463) downwards, we find evidence of these facts. In the acts of 1647, in those of 1687, and throughout the eighteenth century it is ever the same, and everywhere the indivisibility of the Emperor and King is manifest. 1613, 1635, 1655, 1687, 1712, 1715, 1723, 1741, 1790, 1793—all these are the dates of public acts passed by the Hungarian Diet, and proving the points we mention; and, again, in 1805 (after the change of title of Francis II. to that of Emperor of Austria), the Hungarian Diet recognizes him as "Sacratissima Cæsarea et Cæsareo Regia Majestas," and he opens the Diet himself in the quality of "Hereditarius Austriae Imperator."

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necessarily be limited in its influence by those restraints of time and place, and of secular duties, which are imperious in their demands, and must be attended to. Bishops' "Visitations," as they are called, are, "like angels' visits, so few and far between," that they must fail to kindle any lasting affection between them and their brethren, even if they should deign to treat them on such occasions with more than cold courtesy. In the view of their clergy, bishops, we should think, are looked at as comets, seen only at a distance, and at uncertain periods, and then viewed more with dread than admiration—more with wonder than attraction. A bishop is properly only *primus inter pares*, as respects his clergy; but practically an English bishop, owing to his being a peer as well as a prelate, is led to forget the *pares* in the *primus*, instead of merging the *primus* in the *pares*. In a word, our bishops, instead of moving among their clergy, move above them, and altogether out of their spheres.

This is a state of things, the disadvantage of which, we believe, is very generally felt and painfully regretted. It arises, as we have shown, almost unavoidably out of the position which our bishops occupy, and the crowd of exacting secularities with which they are surrounded. They have no time, and, if they had the time, they would not have the disposition for purely spiritual duties. We have seen it stated that the late Bishop of London employed eight hours a day in the government of his diocese; and this did not include the episcopal supervision which he had to exercise over chaplains in Europe, and over missionaries in Asia, Africa, and America. Let any one imagine, if he can, the amount of correspondence that this must necessitate, and then add to it all the other varied secular calls which we have enumerated, and he will see that a bishop's office, though a well paid dignity, is no sinecure, and he will be of our opinion, we think, that a bishop is to be pitied rather than envied. Were it not that it is surrounded with a halo of worldly honour, and has those securities against wearing cares and anxieties which an ample temporal position affords, *nolo episcopari* would be much more frequently, and much more sincerely, uttered than it is. Pre-eminence of position is never without its penalties. Mountain-tops are sublime, but they are usually covered with ice and snow. Men whose lot it is, like them, to occupy high stations, are often greatly misjudged, and condemned for being what, in their peculiar circumstances, they can hardly avoid becoming. It is, however, a sad thing for the Church when the highest qualification for the office of a bishop is to be able to write short letters, or to make neat speeches. Bishops are, indeed, in more ways than one, the victims of their position. They may be part of the scaffolding without which the Church cannot be built up and carried on; but, like the scaffolding, they cannot claim equal honour with the house. It is in the practical light of the scaffolding of the Church we feel called upon to look at them, and to consider whether they cannot be utilized, and rendered more subservient to the ends of their appointment by being relieved of some of their encumbering secularities.

Various schemes have been proposed for securing better episcopal superintendence of dioceses than at present exists. One is the creation of more bishops, or of an inferior order of bishops, to act as assistants to, or substitutes for, those bishops whose position as Peers and other secular employments so much interfere with their spiritual duties as overseers of the clergy. It has been said, "Why not constitute the dean of each Cathedral the bishop's assessor and representative in his absence?" But, as was well remarked lately by the new Bishop of Carlisle, such suffragan bishops would soon become insufferably meddlesome; for, as a rule, there is nothing that elates men more than to be "dressed in a little brief authority." Better always have to deal with the head than the feet. Dr. Waldegrave was quite right on this point. Some of the dioceses are so large and populous that they require dividing, beyond a doubt. But no scheme can be effectual, in our opinion, that does not make provision for relieving the bishops of many of the secular cares that now attach to their office. Why the estates of the bishops, if they must have landed estates, should not be managed by the Church Commissioners, or by some body constituted for the purpose; why the office of judging between the clergy should not be deputed to a Consistory, or court composed of the clergy themselves with a mixture of the laity; why such purely secular work as relates to glebe-houses, sequestrations, the division of parishes, new churches, schools, &c., should not be done by inferior officials, specially appointed, we must confess we can see no just reason. One might attend to the dilapidations, repair, or building of glebe-houses; another to the division of parishes; a third, to the building of churches; and so on, till, by the division of labour, all the temporal exigencies of the Church were provided for, without, in any way, burdening the bishop; leaving him free to devote himself wholly to the spiritual demands of his see. The bishops can hardly wish for all their present multifarious employments, unless indeed it be to swell their self-importance.

It has been suggested that there should be in the English branch of the Church, as there is now in the Irish, a few selected to act as representative bishops in Parliament, that the rest might be relieved from this duty. On the expediency of this we give no opinion. All that we will say is, that we have no wish to see the *status* of the National Church lowered, and that, as none of the clergy are allowed to have seats in the House of Commons, it does not appear to us that the Church is over-represented in Parliament. The real evil in the present state of things, we suspect, is, that the bishops rather represent themselves than the clergy at large. We are not against seeing the Church able "to exalt her mitred front" on high. In a Christian nation, where Church and State are united, she is co-ordinate with the State, and entitled to the like powers, honours, and prerogatives. But what we are concerned for is, the efficiency of the Church as a spiritual institution, and that the great body of the clergy should not suffer from the slights or avoidable neglects of their bishops. An Episcopal Church without episcopal superintendence, care, sympathy, and fellowship, is a mockery, a delusion, and a sore discouragement. But there never can be proper episcopal superintendence, till, in some way or other, the bishops are relieved of their episcopal impediments.

RAILWAYS, THE GREAT CIVILIZERS.

WHEN we contemplate the changes that have been wrought in British society during the last thirty years, we are lost in astonishment, and our astonishment is all the more increased when we reflect that these changes

have been brought about by the application of forces that had been for half a century already well known. Steam and electricity—the strong brother and the subtle, quick-witted sister—have so transformed this island of ours, that our fathers, if they could come from their graves, would scarcely recognize it as the country of their youth. Since the middle of the last century, the conditions of our locomotive conveniences have been the measure of the civilization of its people. Before the days of Macadam, and the accelerated mail system of Palmer, our great towns were almost as much isolated from each other as islands of the Eastern Archipelago. The distances, reckoned by time, were so great, and the expense of travelling so exorbitant, that the wealthy only could afford to travel, and the vast majority of the nation rarely moved further a-field than their own immediate neighbourhood. The age of stage coaches somewhat ameliorated this condition of things, and distant towns may be said to have become on terms of speaking acquaintance-ship. It could not be said, however, that in the days of the road any great mutual relationship existed between provincial towns and the metropolis. They retained their distinctive characters up to the time of the last George, and action or reaction between them, in a social point of view, there was none.

At the entrance of one of the northern railroads there is still preserved the first rude locomotive that ran for passage-traffic on any railroad. This rusty clumsy-looking machine changed the face of the world. On its battered boiler may be inscribed with truth the words, "Alone I did it." When those wheels first revolved, civilization had entered into a new phase—it began to rush where it had hitherto only crept, and the momentum gained in a few years seems to be accelerating every day. It has often been remarked that one great invention is the inevitable precursor of others equally great to minister to the necessities it has called forth. The electric telegraph was the new comer. All the conditions of its existence were already in existence when Wheatstone put them together, and henceforth the railway and telegraph were wedded and ran side by side through every civilized land. The first evident fruit of the twin powers was the equalization of prices, which it produced throughout the country. The superfluity of one part of the island flowed by a natural law towards the scarcity of another part. This tendency towards equalization has at length grown even into an extreme, which is well expressed in *Punch* when he asks—"What advantage has Eastbourne over London?—You get the *Times* there by nine o'clock! and what advantage has London over Eastbourne?—You get all the best and freshest fish there!" The railroad, like water, has a tendency to make things find their level. In addition to this great advantage it has resulted in at once rendering available for general use the thousand and one materials that had been formerly precluded from other than local advantage by the charges of conveyance. We may instance the building-stones that are now transported from one side of the island to the other; the small coal that is now made into blocks and brought from distant pits to London; the fish that is hurried from every sea that washes our shores every morning towards London; and the fruits of the earth that by a natural gravitation find their way towards the metropolitan mouth.

Even the horticultural capabilities of our most remote counties have been called out by the luxurious classes of London. Covent Garden, in the early spring, is fed by the distant gardens of Cornwall, where the mildness of the climate produces an earlier vegetation than is found in the eastern districts of the island. All our early peas and potatoes, which command such extravagant prices at Covent Garden, are called into existence by the Great Western Railway. In return for these natural advantages, which have kept the price of living down in the metropolis—the metropolis, the centre of thought, literature, and the arts, spreads her streams of knowledge throughout the island, and vivifies it with her own intelligence. The railroad and the telegraph are fast breaking down the narrow ideas of a limited society, and are replacing them everywhere with larger views drawn from the life of the nation as a whole. Wherever the great trunk lines radiate from the metropolis there you will find the propaganda of civilization the strongest.

A line of railroad is nothing more than a great nerve and a muscle which communicates to its utmost extremity the brain power of the capital; it is an acoustic tube, along which vibrate the thoughts and ideas of the rest of the world. There is no such thing now as stale news in our great provincial towns; the daily broad sheet has been called into life by the electric telegraph, and Edinburgh, Glasgow, Liverpool, Hull, and Bristol now know what is going on to the utmost limits of telegraphic communication as soon almost as in London itself. If this were the only fruit of telegraph and rail, it would be sufficient to account for the strides civilization has made of late in our island. But the gains are more than we can count.

The railway system has been made subservient to a grand educational movement. With a few unimportant exceptions, all the book-stalls opened upon the different stations throughout the country have been gradually converted into circulating libraries. Any book a subscriber may desire is ordered by telegraph, and is sent down on one clear day's notice. Thus the ideas of the capital permeate the whole population along our great lines of rail, and old modes of thought and action are riven, as it were, by these wedges driven throughout the length and breadth of the land. In the slow course of time we shall see provincialism succumb before their pressure, and the very dialects which now make such a curious patchwork of English as one journeys from north to south will be swept away, nay, the written language itself is undergoing certain modifications to suit the exigencies of railway despatch. All the superfluous letters are disappearing from the directions on our parcels, and the cost of transmitting lengthy messages by telegraph has induced a conciseness of expression, by which our tongue is likely to gain in compactness what it will lose in picturesque detail. The railway may also be considered a propaganda of architecture; there cannot be the least doubt that the station, with its airy and spider web-like roof, has become the model on which all our great warehouses are being built. Lightness and strength, produced by a combination of iron and glass, are everywhere taking the place of those dark and cumbersome structures which of old seemed to be the national expression of the English solidity of character. Nay, if we mistake not, this English heaviness is itself being modified, like its architecture, by the action of the great civilizing agents. The facility with which young Englishmen move about enlarges their ideas, and makes them a far more conversable race than were their fathers before

them, and there is, if we mistake not, a greater versatility and brightness in their minds.

There can be no doubt that the whole aspect of what is called good society has been changed since the advent of railroads. Thirty years ago the upper ten thousand were so exclusive that they never seemed to enlarge their boundaries. A new face among society was immediately noted. Now "nous avons changé tout cela." With the railway, town is every season inundated with the representatives of the great monied classes, who have found their way into the best society, and have, without doubt, with their new blood, brought new ideas. Of old this class, insignificant as it then was, never thought of their "season in town," now it has become a necessity to them; and for their accommodation we see the dear and dirty old hotel expanding into the monster hostelry which are rearing their magnificent façades beside all our great railway termini. When this annual wave of provincialism retreats once more into the country, it carries with it the fashions, refinements, and tastes of the better classes; thus the manners of the whole country are becoming by degrees assimilated to those of the metropolis. And it is not only the monied classes who take advantage of the railways to enjoy the season of London, but the very poorest of the poor can now and then, in some cheap trip, come for the day, from great distances, to see the metropolis.

It would be a curious calculation to compare the percentage of persons that had travelled a hundred miles from their home thirty years ago, with those who now do so. The difference would form a good indication of the expansion of ideas among the population. But if the country is getting into the habit of coming up to town, through the facilities given them by railroads, the town is reciprocating the compliment by retreating into the country.

"Brighton and back every Sunday for Two Shillings and Sixpence;" here is an astounding fact for the cockney. The railways give him eight hours by the seaside, for the sum that it would have cost him, in the days when George was King, to get to Richmond and back. What to him, however, is a luxury, has become to the merchant and professional man a necessity; the five o'clock express to Brighton dots London Bridge with a struggling stream of human life, all pressing to their homes across the Sussex Downs. The same may be said of all our great lines of railways; the stations within an hour's ride of town are becoming the centres of towns of villas, and the price of the annual railway ticket is calculated as a small addition to house rent. The city of London, through the instrumentality of railways, is emptied every night, and filled again in the morning. The hard faces that are blanched in the office or counting-house during the day, in the summer evenings recover the florid hue of health in the bright air of sunny retreats, where roses and children bloom. The same process of interchanging city for country life is going on in all our large towns supplied with railways. Can the importance of this influence of the rail upon health be over-estimated?

There can be little doubt, we think, that the rail has been mainly instrumental in shortening the hours of labour and of business. Thirty years ago there was no incentive for the city population to close early. The country was so far away that they could not take advantage of spare hours after work was done to get a mouthful of fresh air in the fields; the Saturday half-holiday would only have been a movement in favour of the publicans. Now, when half an hour takes the pent-up cit to Hampton Court, or in half a dozen directions, for revival from London smoke, the habit is growing upon us to fly out into the country as often as possible. As far as the health of the population is concerned, however, we think the railroad has not yet been sufficiently utilized in the direction of the working man. The extraordinary increase of value of all building ground in the metropolis is beginning to tell most seriously on the working classes; in order to economize room, houses are built back to back, without the slightest attempt at ventilation, and in these dens the ingenious workmen of London are forced to house themselves. The smallest room cannot be obtained near the heart of the city under five shillings a week, and for this rent it has been proved over and over again that a cottage, together with a pass by railway, may be obtained in good air seven or eight miles from town. Surely, as Mr. Pearson has pointed out, if the railroads can carry coals at the low rate they do, they could afford to carry workmen at an equally low rate.

We are given to understand that at least one of the railway companies has seen the force of this argument, and is prepared to enter into a contract with an association engaged in building a workman's village, to bring the men up by an early train in the morning, and carry them home again, for an annual ticket, which, added to the rent, would still bring it under that charged for the dog-holes which they at present inhabit. Convinced as we are that the very foundation of the elevation of the masses lies in the housing question, we look upon the agency of the railway in this direction as one of the most important social questions of the day, and we feel that it is destined to work a revolution in the condition of the bone and sinew of the population of all great towns. Whilst the action of the rail upon great cities is undoubtedly centripetal, as we see in the mighty mansions of London and Paris, since their introduction, it is at the same time centrifugal, wherein lies the secret of its mighty civilizing power. For whilst large aggregations of people are necessary to raise the intellect to its highest pitch of refinement and power, large and constant dispersions of them are imperatively called for to produce that high physical condition on which all sound civilization must rest. We might then safely assert that the rail and the telegraph have accelerated the onward march of the human race in a greater degree than any other human invention since that of printing and the discovery of the compass.

STATISTICS OF CRIME, 1860.

THE instructive criminal returns, compiled at the Home Office, are very satisfactory for last year. The number of criminals, the amount of crime, punishment, and suffering, in England and Wales, to which these tables are confined, continue to be very large; but happily they were all less last year than the year before, and since 1858 have been successively diminishing. Of the last decennial period that year seems to have been the worst. The number of persons summarily punished, the number committed for trial, and the number of paupers, were all positively greater than in any succeeding year, though the population has continually and rapidly increased. An improvement, which took place in 1859, was continued in 1860, as the following

short summary and comparison of the principal facts will show. The number of criminals and of crimes which fell under the cognizance of the police, in England and Wales, was in,—

	1859.	1860.	Decrease per cent. in 1860.
Criminal population at large ...	135,766	131,024	3.5
Crimes committed	52,018	50,405	3.4
Persons apprehended	27,119	24,862	8.3
Summarily charged	392,810	384,918	2.0
Committed for trial	16,674	15,999	4.06
Committed to prison	126,861	116,282	8.3
Under sixteen years of age	8,913	8,029	10.0

In every item there is a sensible decrease compared to the numbers in 1859, which were a diminution of those of 1858. The commitments to prison are the most certain and most complete test of the amount of criminality, and "the continued decrease in the number of them," says the report, "as compared with former years, notwithstanding the surer means for the apprehension of offenders afforded by the now fully established and well-organized police, and notwithstanding the annual release within the kingdom on expiration of sentence and on tickets of leave of so considerable a number who, under the system of transportation, would have been removed to and would have remained in the colonies, may be admitted as satisfactorily showing a decrease of crime."

The general decrease becomes still more satisfactory when we examine some of the details. All the comparisons and proportions in the tables are in relation to "the whole population according to the last census" (that of 1851). But we have the "new census" to judge by, which was not published when the tables were compiled. We can speak with authority of the increased and increasing number of the people; we know the counties and towns where they have decreased and the cities where they have increased, and if the want of this knowledge detracts considerably from the correctness and validity of some of the comparisons and proportions in the tables, the possession of it makes the conclusion more certain and gratifying that the known increase of population has been accompanied by a positive decrease of crime.

First, as to the nature of offences committed, there was a diminution of the more grave offences, all against property classed under the head of police, and summarily punished, of 1.3 per cent., of assaults 8 per cent., of drunkenness 1.7 per cent., of vagrancy 7.8 per cent., of offences against the police 5.2 per cent.; but there was an increase of malicious offences against property, such as destroying fences and gates, of 1.3 per cent., of offences against the game laws of 4.8 per cent., and a large increase in trespasses against local acts and borough laws, and against the laws relating to servants and apprentices; the latter the effect, no doubt, of trade dissensions, and the former rather the consequence of much new legislation than of malevolence in the people.

Next, as to the great offences which courts of assize and session furnish: there was, in the commitments of 1860, as compared to 1859, a decrease of offences against the person of 10.7 per cent., following a decrease of 5.8 per cent. in 1859; a decrease of murder, 30 per cent.; of attempts to murder, 30.3 per cent.—both of which had increased in 1859; a decrease of offences against property with violence of 7.8 per cent.; without violence the decrease was only 0.5 per cent.; a decrease of forgery and of offences against the currency of 16.8 per cent.; a decrease of minor offences, 21.9 per cent., including perjury and offences against the game laws, which had increased in 1859. There was an increase, however, in malicious offences against property of 2.6 per cent. Such an increase, which has occurred under both jurisdictions, is but a trifling set-off against the large reductions in the more serious and annoying offences against person and property. If, too, we may judge by the police reports, they appear to be very often due rather to the frolicsomeness of youth, or the wantonness of prosperity, than to the malice which the law implies in every outrage.

The number of capital convictions was 48, the smallest yet recorded, but they were followed by 12 executions, three more than in 1859.

It is needful to notice, that the proportion of convicted females to males is declining. In 1859 it was 14.8 per cent. less than in 1858, and last year it was 14.3 per cent. less than in 1859. In 1855 and 1856, there was an alarming increase in the number of crimes committed by females. "The criminal records," said the report on criminal jurisdiction for 1856, "bear painful evidence of the amount of female crime. Last year, of 82 persons charged with murder, 42 were females." A comparison then published, showed that between 1839 and 1856, offences against the person committed by females had increased, in relation to offences committed by males, 6.9 per cent., and other offences in like proportion. In 1858 the evil reached its height; and in 1859, as in the last year, the number of females convicted declined as fast as it had risen. This is, perhaps, the most curious point in the returns, and most worthy of elucidation.

Let us first remind the reader that 1856, when the increase of the criminality of females became most conspicuous, saw the close of the war which was begun in 1854. The commencement of that war was coeval with a great rise in the price of food, the effect of increased consumption and a deficient harvest. In 1855 the number of paupers, which had previously been declining, increased three per cent., and in 1856 almost as much. From several causes the facilities of marriage were diminished, and the number annually celebrated was low, and declined between 1854 and 1858. The marriage rate was lower in 1858 than in any other year of the decennial period. In 1857 there was a commercial convulsion, and in 1858 exports fell off five per cent., and pauperism, diminished in 1857, again increased. Thus the increase of criminality, and especially of the criminality of females, was coincident with comparative distress and comparative infrequency of marriage.

In 1859-1860 there was a great diminution of offences, especially of those committed by females. In the former year our trade increased twelve per cent., and in the latter eleven. In 1859 the number of paupers declined, and continued to decline through 1860, till November. When we turn to that peculiar evidence of female welfare—the number of marriages—we find they rose from the great depression of 1858 to above the mean of the last ten years, both in 1859 and 1860. The counterpart, then, of what has just been stated, connects the decrease of criminality, and especially the decrease in the criminality of females, with a comparative frequency of marriage and general prosperity.

That all the phenomena of society are dependent on the natural laws of population, there is now not the least doubt, but it must not be supposed that our knowledge of this truth interferes in any degree with the exercise of the affections. It only teaches us that their consequences are certain, and that an inevitable punishment awaits on every improper indulgence. To show the connection, however, between the exercise of our affections and their consequences, it is necessary to do that perfectly which we have just attempted very imperfectly, co-ordinate and combine the information derived from different sources. Such is now the want of this kind of combination, that we find the Registrar-General continually acknowledging the favour of the Emigration Commissioners in supplying him with information. The present returns contain another and a still more remarkable example of a want of combination to supply the public with precise and accurate information amongst the members of our official hierarchy.

Perhaps the most important information to be derived from these kind of statistics is the influence of different occupations and the massing together of large populations, over the increase or diminution of crime. To supply this, Mr. Redgrave classified the towns in eight districts, separated from the counties, and he gave us the proportion of criminals to the population in these districts. But he calculated those proportions, and his successors continue to calculate them, by the census of 1851. Their calculations placed the metropolis, with its aggregation now of 2,803,034, at the favourable top of the scale of proportional criminality. It possesses only 1 of the criminal class to 183·8 of the population. The cotton districts, containing a vast aggregation of people, came next—1 to 126·7. In the small towns, however, "chiefly dependent on the agricultural districts," the proportion of criminal classes to the population is 1 to 91·5; and in the Midland Counties 1 in 101·4. Now, there has been in 1860 only a small positive increase in the number of the criminal classes in the metropolis, which still leaves it in the place of least criminality. In the agricultural counties there is a positive increase in the number of the criminal classes. It is now, therefore, most desirable to ascertain the proportion of these classes to the present population of the metropolis, which has increased 19 per cent. since 1851; to that of Manchester and its neighbourhood, which has increased 8 or 10 per cent.; and to that of the small towns and counties in which the population has decreased. But on attempting to elucidate this important problem we were stopped by an unexpected obstacle.

We knew that many of our towns have different municipal and parliamentary boundaries, and as the criminal tables do not specify the boundaries of the towns of which the proportionate criminality is described, we could not hope to deduce any satisfactory result, by taking at hap-hazard the population under the Census of 1861. But the metropolis, we thought, the largest aggregate of a town population perhaps in the world, combining within itself most of the features of all other towns, will supply much of the desired information. We were deceived. We have had a good deal of experience of disgraceful confusion in most of our statistical accounts, but we thought the metropolis a defined and distinct area, about which in public documents there could be no difference whatever. For the compiler of the criminal tables, however, the "metropolis includes an average radius of fifteen miles round Charing-cross, and comprises the district of the metropolitan police and the City of London police." For the Census Commissioners, the metropolis is "London within the limits of the Metropolitan Local Government Act." These two areas thus described are not identical, and the population of the metropolis, about which these two authorities tell us so many interesting facts, is not the same. This is the most extraordinary example we have met with of two public officers, both under the Secretary of State for the Home Department, including under the same name, and that the name of the capital of the empire, two somewhat different spaces, and different populations, and pretending to inform the public accurately of numerous facts concerning them, as if they were identical. The discovery of this discrepancy precluded us from ascertaining the relation at present of the number of criminals to the population, and compels us to remonstrate with the authorities for their carelessness and want of concert.

THE WARRIORS OF WIMBLEDON.

THE review of the Metropolitan Volunteers on Wimbledon Common, although splendid as a military spectacle, and most creditable to the young soldiers who marched before H.R.H. the General Commanding-in-Chief with the ease and steadiness of veterans, was chiefly interesting to the thoughtful observer from the moral and political reflections which it could not fail to suggest. No one could leave the Common without a feeling of thankfulness that England, by the patriotism of her Volunteers, has been at last delivered from the humiliation of perpetually recurring invasion panics, and freed from the misery and mischief of external aggression. Another subject of still greater congratulation is, that in this glorious land of free speech and free thought, her Majesty may safely place arms in the hands of her subjects, for the defence of her throne and the maintenance of the institutions and independence of the country. What continental despotism could trust its student classes, its young blood, its professional and middle class, and its artisans with deadly arms of precision, to be wielded at the command of officers virtually elected by these Volunteers themselves?

Among all these gallant riflemen, and the hundred and sixty thousand of their compatriots whom they represented, there is but one common feeling of loyalty to the throne, and attachment to the constitution of the country. To boast that other European nations are less fortunate and less blessed than this "precious stone set in the silver sea," as Shakspeare calls it, would be to make a vaunt of that which ought rather to inspire the deepest thankfulness. Yet it is impossible to forget that no government of the Old World, except, perhaps, that of Switzerland, feels itself so strong in the affections of its people that it can afford to arm its subjects in time of peace against foreign aggression. Despotism deliberately set the danger of intestine rebellion above that of external invasion. They would rather trust an aggressive neighbour than a discontented people. The first impulse of their subjects would be to use the sword and musket that might be put into their hands to conquer their political liberties and win the free institutions so long promised and so long withheld. Thanks to the civil and religious freedom which we enjoy, we have passed through this stage of turbulence and danger. Our people have been educated in the school of freedom, and the Wimbledon Volunteers

are not the least promising graduates in that Alma Mater. If our foreign visitors, who mustered so strongly on the Common, envy us the moral grandeur of the spectacle of Saturday, let them be assured it can only be attained through the same path of representative institutions and temperate freedom.

Ample justice has been done to the soldierlike bearing, the steadiness of march, and accuracy of manœuvre, which characterized the Volunteers. The General Commanding-in-Chief, we are informed, told Lieut.-Col. Brewster it was many years since he had seen skirmishing so good as that performed by the Inns of Court. The compliment points in the direction of the work to be done by Volunteers, and the deficiencies which as yet exist in their training. The Crimean and Indian campaigners around the Duke, who discussed the pretensions of the Volunteers in so generous a spirit, maintain that the light infantry drill of the parade ground ought now to be succeeded by more active operations, namely, by the exercises that would be demanded of Volunteers in the field. The Rifle Volunteer must receive his best training among suburbs, villages, hedges, ditches, and broken ground. If it may be conceded that the Volunteers would be fully a match for a similar number of Zouaves in the "open," it must be remembered that the Zouave receives practical training in the art of finding cover, where, to an unskilful observer, no cover is perceptible. The Zouave regiments also excel in rapidity of movement, especially on broken ground. In a hand to hand struggle, it may be thought that the bone and muscle of our English Volunteers would give them an advantage over an equal number of French troops. But even here strength would be unequally matched against skill and practice. The French Zouaves, be it known, go through a most painstaking and complete course of instruction in the handling of the bayonet. Nor can our Volunteers be placed on a level for defensive purposes with the French Zouaves, until every man of them has been taught the bayonet exercise, and is a thorough proficient in the use of this formidable weapon. We happen to know, and the announcement ought to impart confidence to our Volunteers, that Sir James Outram, than whom there can be no better judge, considers that, for merely defensive purposes, the improved English bayonet, skilfully wielded, is fully a match for the formidable sword-bayonet with which a portion of the French troops are supplied. His skill being equal, and his weapon not inferior, the bayonet may be said to be, *par excellence*, the Englishman's weapon. The national instinct to close with the enemy, which won us all the naval engagements of the last war, and gave victory to our colours in the bloodiest fields of the Peninsula, should be cherished by every wise commander. It may be doubted whether even our soldiers of the line are sufficiently trained in the use of the improved bayonet. And the *morale* of our troops would receive a terrible shock if, in every hand to hand struggle, English valour and stamina were found to be of little or no avail against superior skill and dexterity.

The appearance of the Common on the review-day has been sufficiently described. The hundred thousand Volunteers in the provinces who could not visit Wimbledon, may perhaps be glad to know how the Common looked on a working firing-day, when the riflemen were hard at it, and the bullets made that pleasant music so agreeable to the ears of Charles XII. of Sweden, and other heroic madmen. The Common was gay with tents, large and small—refreshment-tents, pavilions, firing-tents, and a little nest of tents for the council and officers of the association. Two firing-tents were placed nearly together, opposite two corresponding butts. A hundred yards further off were two more tents, with their respective squads of Volunteers, and so on.

About nine o'clock, the candidates were paraded at the council-tent, were told off into "squads," and then marched to the firing-tents. Each "squad" had a firing-tent and target of its own, the tent being provided with a small projecting awning to cover the piece from rain if necessary, and also to protect the eye of the rifleman from the glare of light. The squads were mostly placed under the command of an officer of the line, either direct from the School of Musketry at Hythe, or of the adjutant or musketry instructor to a line regiment. It was easy to see how the young Volunteer officers envied their young commander his coolness and *nonchalance*. When a Volunteer, newly gazetted, gives the word of command, it is usually with a certain timidity. He is not unconscious that there lurks in the tone something of the "if you please!" or "if you have no objection, gentlemen!" But the young officer of the line calls out "Attention!" in a manner so curt and peremptory that inattention is simply impossible. His habit of command fits him as easily as a glove. He makes it felt that disobedience would be mutiny—punishable by Court Martial.

After "attention" had been proclaimed, the names of the competitors were called over from a ruled and tabulated sheet of paper, attached by strings to a black leather pad which the officer in command carried in his hand. The order was given, "Load with ball cartridge." This being done with military precision, the two right-hand men, front and rear, or the right-hand man alone, was ordered to advance to the centre of the tent and fire at the target, the others remaining in line until their turn came. They fired singly, and after each shot the Volunteer remained on his knee watching the target. It was astonishing how quick some of the riflemen were in seeing where the bullet had struck, and in calling out, "A miss!" "Over!" "A little to the right!" "Ricochet!" If the marker waved no flag, it was a miss; if he waved a white flag, the target had been hit in the direction indicated by the position of the flag; if a red flag were waved, it counted two or three points according as it had struck the centre or the bull's eye. When the result was known, the officer noted it in his tabular return, and the next competitor succeeded.

The process of taking aim is awfully momentous to the nervous Volunteer, and usually occupies more time than Major-General Hay, Commandant of the School of Musketry at Hythe, altogether approves. His maxim is, "Raise the sight of your rifle gradually to the level of your object, and the instant you have covered it, fire!" This is the General's own practice. He usually walks away from his target, turns suddenly round, as if he were fighting a duel, except that he rapidly elevates his piece, instead of depressing it, and lodges his Whitworth bullet, at 1,000 yards, in the bull's eye before an ordinary rifleman would have got the gun to his shoulder. Our Volunteers have not gained confidence or practice enough to follow this advice, and took some time to steady their piece and cover the bull's eye. Shooting with the Enfield rifle, too, it is necessary, with ever so little wind,

to allow one or two feet for the divergence of the bullet. The men who did not make liberal allowance for the force of the wind often missed the target altogether, while those who succeeded in hitting the bull's eye, aimed at an imaginary point on the line of the centre of the bull's eye, but several feet to windward. The care and pains taken by the Volunteers to hit the target may have defeated the object, but at least testified to their anxiety and desire to acquit themselves with credit.

When the "squad" had fired, the officer in command made them form in line, and taking up his tabular returns, in which he had chronicled the result of each shot, read it out to his party thus:—Brown 6; Jones 2; Robinson 10; and so on. The advantage of reading the returns when the result of each shot was fresh in the minds of all was obvious, since it left nothing to the memory, and prevented all subsequent disputes. Then the word of command was given as before, "Load with ball cartridge!" and so the firing went on until each man had fired his five rounds. The returns, when completed, were taken to the secretary's tent, and were, after a fashion, and not without many blunders and much delay, classified and published.

The public press is not alarmist when it foresees danger, but only when it proclaims danger where none exists. Who will deny that there was danger in our growing distaste of arms as a profession? Who will deny that there is danger in the fact that on the other side of a narrow channel there are highly disciplined armies, numbered by hundreds of thousands, at the supreme disposal of the despotic sovereigns of rival nations—nations not devoted, like ourselves, by taste and inclination, to the pursuits of commerce? Common sense teaches us that rude valour, even of men fighting *pro aris et focis*, could do little or nothing in the face of highly disciplined armies trained to the use of the destructive engines of modern warfare. War has been made more than ever an art by the improvement in our weapons and other weapons of war. Steam has bridged the Channel and may evade the blockade. And, finally, the most trustworthy military authorities have pointed out—and Magenta and Solferino have written the truth in sanguinary characters—that the rapidity with which war can now be prosecuted leaves no leisure for preparation when the emergency once arises, and that the bravest people must now succumb to the nation best prepared for war, and best practised in the refinements and resources of modern warfare.

THE WORKMEN AND THEIR FRIENDS.

THE public has long since ceased to take an interest in the builders and their strike. When the masters hit upon what seemed the happy compromise of payment by the hour—allowing the men to work as many or as few hours as they pleased, and giving them a Saturday half-holiday without diminution of the wages which they were able to earn under the former system of payment by the day—unless the men themselves chose by their voluntary act to work less and earn less than before—there seemed to be an end of the question. A few zealous Unionists, led on by the still rampant Union and its indefatigable secretary, might still resolve to quarrel with their bread and butter; but virtually the case was heard in the great court of public opinion, and decided against the men, whose only chance seemed to be that of which the great majority availed themselves—to return quietly to their work, and bless their stars that they were fortunate enough to obtain it.

Under these circumstances, so unfavourable to a renewal of the discussion, an attempt has been made to re-open the question. As Mr. Potter and the Union might write without readers, speak without auditors, and appeal in vain to the jaded and pre-occupied ear of the public, the demand for a re-hearing was made by eight gentlemen, whom we take, from their addresses in the Temple, Lincoln's-Inn, Doctors' Commons, and other legal haunts and purlieus, to be barristers or attorneys. They stated that some weeks ago it came to their knowledge (whether individually or collectively does not appear), that the operative builders complained bitterly that they could not get a hearing for their case as to the questions still at issue between them and their employers, that the true facts of the dispute had been distorted, that no notice was taken of their meetings by the leading newspapers, and that, in short, their case was not only condemned but stifled. Under such circumstances they came to the rescue of the oppressed, placed themselves in communication with the workmen, with members of the trade's societies, with the committee and members of the Union—examined the documents, reports, and accounts, all of which were freely opened for their inspection—and came to the conclusion that the men had not received justice either at the hands of their masters, of the press, or of the public.

We have carefully read the elaborate report published in the *Times* and other daily papers of Monday, with the names and addresses of these eight legal amici curiæ, and cannot admit that they show any valid cause for a new trial or a reversal of the previous judgment, which the public, with a rare unanimity, has already passed upon the question. The "Unionists," of course, persist in preferring the system of payment by the day to that of payment by the hour, for the obvious and palpable reason that the hour system virtually breaks up the Union. They themselves admit the fact when they state that "their experience is that a fixed day of ten hours, corporate action, and frequent united remonstrance on their part, are means barely sufficient to prevent masters from extending labour beyond ten hours per diem, and are the necessary bases for any future effort on their part for any further reduction. It is felt that under the hour system, when the master will treat individually with each man, and will be checked by no recognized standard, he will be able at his discretion to prolong the hours indefinitely, and that, so far from each man being free to work as many or as few hours as he pleases, all will be obliged to work the long hours." Here the assumption clearly is, that it is the interest of the master to get more work out of a man than a man can perform with justice to his own limbs, brain, and health; which is absurd, but which, if true, it would be in the power of every man to remedy as far as he himself was individually concerned.

The men on strike and their legal friends think this remedy to be inefficient, inasmuch as "more than one of the masters who are enforcing the hour system have plainly told the men that they will not employ men who will only work nine hours; and, as in some instances, men are systematically working twelve hours, and even more per diem." This may be true, but it is so evidently exceptional as to stand for nothing in the argument. The hours of labour will, in the long run, regulate themselves. If a master is such a

fool as to insist upon a day's work of "twelve hours and more" systematically, the men will either "scamp" their work, or transfer their services to a more rational employer, who neither likes his work to be "scamped," nor to pay debilitated and over-wrought men for work which they cannot thoroughly perform. The whole case really turns upon the difference between nine hours and ten, and not between ten and twelve. The urgent necessities of the trade—regulated by circumstances over which neither masters nor men have any control—point to ten hours as the day's labour. The Union desires that the men should only work nine hours, but that they should be paid for ten. Hence the whole dispute, and the simple and effectual means taken by the masters to protect themselves without injury to their workmen.

Another grievance stated by the men seems to deserve consideration. They allege that the change to the hour system will produce actual money loss to the men, and money gain to the masters, by the abolition of over-time. Under the old system, if a man worked two hours over-time, he received what was called time and a-half, or three hours' pay at 6½d. = 19½d.; but under the new he receives but two hours' ordinary pay, or, at the increased rate of 7d. per hour, 14d., or a loss to the man of 5½d. Clearly, we think that after a day's work of ten hours, the men are entitled to an extra rate of payment, to compensate them, as they say, for the greater expenditure of vital energy which the prolongation of their labour necessitates, and for the sacrifice of a portion of that leisure which becomes more valuable to them in proportion as there is less of it left. If the masters should yield on this one point, and admit a reckoning of time and a-half for every hour's labour in excess of ten, the workmen and the Union would not have a shadow of a grievance left, and the whole dispute would come to a natural as well as a pleasant termination.

On their last point the Unionists make allegations which they cannot prove, and have not a leg to stand upon. They assert that although "all the great firms are endeavouring to enforce the hour system, those of the men who have accepted it without protest form a very small minority of the whole trade, and, with some exceptions, are very inferior workmen."

In answer to the case as thus put, eight of the principal building firms, confined, perhaps, to eight, to be an exact make-weight in point of numbers to the eight legal luminaries of the Temple and Lincoln's-Inn, and headed by the well-known house of Cubitt & Co., have published a letter in which they satisfactorily and conclusively meet all the charges except one. In justice to the men in their employ they indignantly deny that they are inferior workmen, or are working under protest. They assert, on the contrary, that they have been selected for their skill and experience, that the majority have been with them for years, and add that they (the masters) are at a loss by what reasoning the few men still on strike can venture to impugn the ability of so many thousands of their fellow-workmen. They state also, in the most emphatical terms, that their men are not called upon to work more than ten hours a day, and they refuse all arbitration from the Temple, or Lincoln's-Inn, or anywhere else, on the satisfactory ground that the large majority of the men have already decided the case by their adoption of the new system.

The masters have throughout this dispute—now rapidly drawing to a close—acted with equal energy and kindness. The grievance as to over-time—as put by the Unionists—is one which they may, perhaps, remove without further parley, and with advantage to all concerned. That all work over ten hours should be considered extra—and paid at the extra rate of "time and a-half"—is a proposition so reasonable, that we cannot see what objection can be raised to it. It would be doing the masters gross injustice to accuse them of wishing to gain a paltry threepence-halfpenny per hour by the labour of a man who stays away from his family on purpose to oblige them, and to forward necessary work; and, if the statement of the whole case, as made by the eight legal friends of the workmen, only lead to a proper understanding on this point—and such an equitable adjustment as we suggest—there will be an end of the agitation, because no reasonable ground of complaint will exist in any quarter.

THE ROYAL DRAMATIC COLLEGE.

THERE is no kind of charity in which this country is more rich, nor any in which its liberality seems more laudable and more natural than the institutions which have for their object the creation of a provision for those whose youth and manhood have been spent in the public service, but whom age or infirmity has deprived of the power of exerting themselves as they were wont to do. The most eminently deserving objects of such munificence are, of course, our soldiers and sailors; and these have now for many generations reaped the fruits of the judicious bounty of sovereigns—the royal disposition of the one and the easy good nature of the other of whom were never displayed in a manner more becoming to themselves, or more in harmony with the feelings of the nation. The army and navy were the only fit objects for a national provision, but in more modern days the members of other professions have very properly thought it becoming to their brotherhood that they should associate together to raise funds for the aid of the less fortunate members of their own body, who having in the prime of life been able, perhaps, to earn no more than a scanty and precarious subsistence, would, in the evening of life, when their strength and their capacity began to decay, find themselves, as far as their own resources went, comparatively, or, it might be, wholly destitute.

The first of these associations, we believe, was the Literary Fund, which, since its institution, has done infinite good, relieving much severe distress, the existence of which was hardly suspected; and the most recent is the Royal Dramatic College, which was established about three years ago, on a somewhat more ambitious plan, since its founders proposed not only to raise a fund "for the purpose of securing a home and pensions in old age for well-deserving members of the dramatic profession in reduced circumstances," but also to found a school, and a library and gallery of works of art, illustrative of the history of dramatic literature and art in general. The two latter designs, however, have been postponed to the first and principal object, and the institution may, we believe, be looked upon at present as merely an asylum for decayed actors.

As such, we can conceive few institutions more entitled to public support. There is, perhaps, no taste more universal than the fondness for theatrical

representations: they have prevailed even among comparative savages; they have been at once the delight and the pride of the most civilized and accomplished communities that the world has beheld. In every country, without exception, its dramatic writers have occupied places in the first rank of its literature. In our own, the superiority over all other poets is unanimously conceded to one who was not only a play-writer, but a play-actor. Our actors and actresses, even if we leave out the honoured name of Shakspeare, have been persons, as regards a large proportion of them, who have earned and deserved the respect of the community. We need not recapitulate names; not even that of Garrick, whose death "eclipsed the gaiety of nations;" nor of Kelly, the friend of princes and of statesmen; nor of Siddons, nor of Kemble; while to speak of the living would be invidious. It is sufficiently known that the profession has at all times furnished many members whom all ranks have been delighted to welcome into their society.

But it is not for these more fortunate followers of the art that this College was founded. Garrick was, in every way, far too good a manager to require the support of the public anywhere except on the boards of his theatre, and the ablest of our present managers boast that, so far at least, they follow in his steps. But the great mass of actors fare less prosperously: a well-known trial, a year or two ago, revealed how bare a subsistence they achieved, even while in the full possession of their powers; and having nothing to spare as a provision for the future, their fate would indeed be hard if left unassisted, and they may fairly claim in their old age the support of that public to whose pleasure their youth has contributed. Should it be said that those who are thus in need of aid are but the inferior members of the craft, and that their humbler abilities are not entitled to that reward of public appreciation which should be reserved for first-rate talent, it must be pointed out in reply that, in this respect, actors differ from the members of other professions, that the most gifted among them do, in a great degree, depend for a fair display of their genius on the cordial co-operation of their less able brethren. It is not so in literature. Scott required no aid from Fitzgerald, nor Goldsmith from Hayley; but Cassio is indispensable to Othello, the Nurse to Juliet; and the most ordinary walking gentleman contributes to the success of the great actor, whether in Shylock or in Benedick.

A complaint is often made of late years that the drama has deteriorated, and that both the plays and the actors are greatly inferior to those which delighted the theatrical patrons at the beginning of the century. If the plays are inferior, which, we fear, cannot be denied, the spectators have themselves to blame. Yet, even with respect to these, it is probably not so much that the taste for genuine wit and humour has fallen off, as that the audience is no longer composed of the same class as that which three-parts of a century ago used to throng to the plays of Shakspeare or Sheridan, plays which will live as long as the language in which they are written, but which, if ever they are now performed, are performed, unless under very exceptional circumstances, to empty benches. But with respect to the actors we greatly doubt their general inferiority to their predecessors. Great tragedians are at all times plants of rare growth. But in comedy there are still many (we need not particularize their names, which are sufficiently familiar to every playgoer), who "hold the mirror up to nature" as faithfully as Hamlet himself could have desired, though the multiplicity of theatres which have recently sprung up prevents their being collected in large bodies, as was the case when Drury-lane and Covent-garden enjoyed the old monopoly. Now, with a dozen theatres competing with one another for the services of every actor of name, every company is weak, though good individual actors are probably as plentiful as ever.

The College, then, in support of the funds of which the actors hold a great fête to-day at the Crystal Palace, has a fair claim to the public support; and it must be added that the actors do not ask for this support without having first exerted themselves strenuously in their own cause. The most munificent subscriptions come from their own body; and we are glad to see that the great foreign artists who belong to the same profession are but little behind our own countrymen in liberality, but that the names of Mario, Costa, Giuglini, Ronconi, and others figure as prominently in the subscription list as those who tread the boards of the Haymarket or the Olympic.

The intended fête seems too multifarious in its character for us to attempt a description of it; but as we lately made some objections to Mr. Blondin's exhibition, we may be permitted to hope that the gentleman who announces himself as the rival of Blondin will not endanger either his own life or that of Mr. Bedford by the exploit which he announces. A straw is certainly the last thing to which we could dream of comparing Mr. Bedford; but unless Mr. Toole's back be stronger than a camel's, we shall hardly be able to view the feat without apprehensions of a disastrous result. And we should be seriously afflicted to see either of the parties concerned qualified to profit themselves by the establishment of this College through their well-meant, but rash endeavours to promote its success.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

PARIS.

At this moment the preoccupations of the Emperor and his Government are universal, for he has friends on no side, and he and his advisers begin clearly to perceive it. Russia is cool, and that for many reasons; with Austria there is absolutely nothing to be done; Prussia is suspicious; and we persist in arming our coast fortifications, and reviewing our Volunteers. Lord Palmerston is not to be blinded or cheated into false security, therefore what France is to do next is not so easy to see; yet do something she must.

The causes of Russia's coolness are not difficult to discern; she disliked the line taken by the Emperor in the affairs of Poland, and, in a general way, she looks upon Bonaparte France as revolutionary. Louis Napoleon has Prince Gortschakoff for a friend, but he has the Empress Marie for an implacable enemy; and the Czar and his brothers (especially the Grand Duke Constantine) are even less than lukewarm. In this situation it is quite useless to talk of "offering" anything to the Cabinet of St. Petersburg; for, in the first place, it would be shy of whatever might be offered; and, in the next, it does not believe now in the power of France to give eventually what it may have been drawn into offering. Constantinople may be a splendid bait, but there are two or three powers who would have a word to say to the nation which should venture to snatch at it; and just now there is a Sultan not much inclined to act the part of the "sick man."

With Russia, therefore, the sphinx of the Seine can hope for no solution of the enigma. The sphinx must seek it elsewhere.

Apparently the fits of desire for "talk" with crowned heads are periodical; the present fit has seized the Imperial French patient just at the period when it seized him last year. He has once more sought for a confidential interview with his brother of Prussia, and the answer has been a vexatious one, implying that his Prussian Majesty would go to Chalons as he went to Baden-Baden, and as Raoul, in the "Huguenots," goes to meet the Ligueurs:

"Qu'il vienne au rendez-vous, mais bien accompagné."

If a "tail" of confederate sovereigns may be tacked to it, the Prussian comet will grace the Gallic hemisphere. *Si non, non.* There is no help for it, and the first Napoleon's nephew will have probably to relinquish a closer personal friendship with the son of the princess whom his uncle so sorely wounded in both her interests and her pride.

This abominable and insane attempt, too, at assassination in Prussia, will not make the King more anxious to cultivate intimacy with the ruler of a state where all secret societies have their head-quarters.

There is a story going about Paris, and believed to be perfectly authentic, of the manner in which Count Kisseleff met the request of M. Arese (the envoy of Victor Emmanuel, and cousin of the French Emperor), that the Russian Government would be pleased to "recognize" the kingdom of Italy. Count Kisseleff, it seems, refused politely but firmly. M. Arese pressed his request, and, amongst other arguments, said that Russia could not possibly, as a Greek power, have any feelings of regret about the Pope. Count Kisseleff replied that Russia had no feelings specially about the Pope, but that there were violations of treaties, promises, &c., that touched every power, of no matter what religious persuasion. In short, his Excellency would not hold out any likelihood of a recognition. On taking leave, therefore, Arese said, "Well, M. le Comte, we must wait, we will wait, one year, two, five, ten years if necessary." At this the Russian diplomatist smiled, and shook his head. "Ten years!" he echoed, "and in ten years where do you suppose will be the 'unity' of Italy?"

Though we do not share in this desponding view, it is curious to know what are the views entertained on the subject by other powers.

The two events that most attract the attention of society in Paris are, however, the sentence passed on Mirès, and the alleged attempt to murder his son by the Baron de Vidil. The great speculator has ended by becoming to a certain degree a victim, and by having the sympathies of the "world" on his side, for the simple reason that no one at this hour has any mode of discovering satisfactorily the real state of the case, the whole action having been conducted with such arbitrary onesidedness. Should Mirès live to bring on his appeal, it is affirmed that frightful scandals will be revealed.

In the affair of M. de Vidil, great anxiety has been shown by the Court, and all around it, to demonstrate that the present condition of France did not necessarily engender such horrible deeds, and that, in a word, Imperialism was not synonymous with every form of crime. In this sense the "inspired" article of the *Patrie* was monstrously absurd and ill-advised. The energy of M. Limayrac, in so often emphatically declaring that the dreadful offence committed by M. de Vidil was "an exceptional case," provokes naturally the question of "Who said it was not? Do you feel it to be a product of your morals and manners?"

One thing is well known, namely, that Count Morny, who is one of M. de Vidil's most intimate friends, was prepared to go any lengths to prevent his being given up to the action of English law, and he declared, at the outset, that every amount of protection should be awarded to the companion of his pleasures! But wiser counsels prevailed, and it is even asserted that the unhappy man himself thought the least impossible of the courses open to him was that of returning to London to stand his chance with an English jury, or risk the probability of his son's reluctance to accuse his own father of murder.

The reason that the *Moniteur* published the other day a deliberate denial of the report of the Emperor's declining health was, as you may have guessed, that the report was a true one. The Emperor's strength is considerably impaired, and every time that you have read within the last few months of his Majesty's share in field sports, it has been an invention of the official journal. His Majesty has not been on horseback, for more than a short ride, for a very long time. He is not seriously ill, but he is not strong just now.

SKETCHES FROM THE HOUSE.

BY THE SILENT MEMBER.

THE event of the week is Lord John Russell's approaching elevation to the Peerage. The rumour that he would leave us for that bourne from which no Commoner returns was generally credited last February, when it was said that, the Noble Lord's wish to bring in a Reform Bill having been overruled by the Cabinet, he felt that his "occupation was gone." Who will propose another Reform Bill now, save, perhaps, Mr. Bright; and is that dear old subject of Parliamentary Reform indeed hung up and indefinitely postponed? Who will now venture to float such a measure over "the bar of the House of Lords," to use a not infelicitous phrase of Lord John's own? One thing is clear, that the new peer cannot launch a Reform Bill in a sea so tempestuous, and where it would be so sure to founder.

It is observed that as the time draws near for his last farewell of the House of Commons, Lord John's features wear a natural expression of sentiment and regret. He leaves an assembly of which he has been a member for forty-eight years, with whose history his name has been indissolubly associated, and in which, for more than a quarter of a century, he has proposed the most considerable measures. With the present generation his name is a household word, inextricably associated with the strife of parties and the struggle for office. Perhaps among Lord John's regrets may be a presentiment that when he leaves us he steps into his appointed niche in history. Some of us had hoped, perhaps unreasonably, that he would have lived and died "Lord John," as we hope and believe our Noble Viscount will never exchange his Irish title for one derived from the United Kingdom. Others assert that it is time for his fame that he left the Chamber that has so long ceased to echo to the sound of his voice, seeing that his voice rarely reaches its four walls. They remind you that for some years his physique has been

growing more and more languid, his voice more attenuated, his elocution more mincing, and his manner more affected.

"Sir—a—I think—a—that this House—a—" is all we have heard on the back benches for a long time. The reporters appear to gather a little more, and the gentlemen on the front Opposition bench and the clerks at the table may hear considerable portions of the Noble Lord's speeches. We used to cry, "Speak up!" till we found it nettled him. Then we gave it up, and enunciated it as an axiom that the minister or other member who cannot make himself distinctly audible in the House of Commons cannot too soon retire from it. In an oratorical point of view, his taper burned with a flickering sort of flame, that a puff of wind would extinguish. If ill-health and a failing physique had caused the languor of his manner, allowances would have been made; but we could not help feeling, from some occasional symptoms, that Lord John would not be at the pains to make himself heard. The inaudibility was then laid at the door of a certain superciliousness, as if it did not matter whether he were heard or no, and as if he were too great a man to make himself distinctly understood by his auditors.

Lord John has certainly not been comfortable of late on the Treasury Bench. After leading the House for a series of years, after flourishing as Prime Minister and supreme dispenser of patronage, and even venturing, in the height of his career, to send a certain Foreign Secretary about his business, it is not an enviable destiny to suffer almost total eclipse by the side of that robust English nature. As they have sat side by side on the same bench, the small and slender physique of the one has been dwarfed, not to say oppressed, by the healthier and more vigorous organization of the other. When they rise to address the House, the contrast is altogether to the advantage of the older Minister. The oratorical style of the Foreign Minister is enervated and languid; that of our Noble Viscount is manly and outspoken, with a superfluity of energy altogether wonderful in a man of his years. While the one often minces and clips his vowels like a stage exquisite, the utterance of the other is always simple and natural. Lord John, in his "hyperflutinated" affectation, often emits "a sound so fine that nothing lives 'twixt it and silence." But no one has occasion to say, "Speak up!" when Lord Palmerston stands up to make a statement or clear up a difficulty.

I might not insist so much upon Lord John's physical feebleness as a speaker if it had not a practical bearing upon his probable career in the Upper House. The Whigs there want a better leader badly enough, as Lord Granville would be the first to admit. But if Lord John be too languid or indolent to be heard in the Lower House, how shall he sway the debates or speak to the public out of doors in that loftier and more capacious chamber in which so much lordly oratory is snuffed out? With his thin voice and feeble articulation I incline to think it will be a mistake for Lord John to attempt to lead the Government in the Upper House. Unless he is prepared to raise his tones and speak with the distinctness with which he lectured in Exeter Hall some four or five years ago, he will only inflict disappointment and vexation upon his audience.

We are promised some signal examples of square pegs in round holes, in some necessary ministerial changes. We want a Secretary for State for War in the Lower House, and that peaceful, philosophic, ruminating, and mildly obstructive Minister, Sir George Lewis, is of all men named for the office! Sir George Grey would make a very good Home Secretary for a Tory Ministry; but he is, for that reason, distasteful to Mr. Bright and the advanced Liberals. The didactic Mr. Cardwell, whose "dreary dissertation" on the Irish Education estimates made Lord John Manners yawn to the point of a formal protest, is to have promotion of some kind not yet determined upon. Sir C. Wood has been offered the War Office, but he is getting at home in his Indian Administration, and will not move except on compulsion. Mr. Cardwell's promotion may show the member for Stroud that if he had not thrown up his Irish Secretaryship as a post beneath his pretensions, the "whirligigs of time" would have brought him compensation and advancement, from which he has now shut himself out.

The season of morning sittings and post-midnight hours now rages with the severity proper to the dog-days. On three days of the week the Speaker takes the chair at noon, and on four nights of the week he does not quit it until two and three o'clock in the morning. The working man who keeps Saint Monday and Saint Tuesday, and has to do his week's work and make up his week's wages by working far into the night, is the type of the British House of Commons. We are now paying the penalty for those long and glorious nights in Supply, when, with the whole session before it, the House went cheerfully into discussions embracing all sorts of extraneous, foreign, and often unimportant topics. Nor is the practice at an end. The Speaker has every day to march to Supply through a crowd of motions and topics ranging over every part of the habitable globe.

Members still have *their* day, and still persist in seizing the Government day, and appropriating the time which ought to be devoted to legislation. Bills are now daily dropped though the "lateness of the Session,"—a phrase which should be read, "through the habitual waste of public time on going into Committee of Supply." We have been told that the evil was one which the good sense of hon. members would not fail to correct. And here, in the middle of July, the "good sense" of members is as satisfactorily demonstrated as it was in March, when they had all the session before them. Let it be known that public opinion within the House is powerless, and that a change of the standing orders is imperatively demanded. The most feasible suggestion is that on one night in the week the House shall go into Committee of Supply without motion made or question put. People who wish to examine and discuss the estimates will then be sure that they will come on, and will not have to wait until ten or eleven o'clock while some Ultramontane representative of the Irish priests spits their venom and his own at the noble and heroic Garibaldi.

NEW PICTURES IN THE CRYSTAL PALACE.—The attractions of the Crystal Palace have been much increased by the addition of a fine series of water-colour drawings from the private collections of Her Majesty and the Prince Consort. These have been executed by various accomplished artists, and include famous examples of the Dutch and Flemish and the Italian masters, together with some of the best productions of the schools of modern Germany, France, and England.

LORD NELSON AND LADY HAMILTON IN 1800.

THE Dean of Westminster has recently printed a small number of copies, for private circulation only, of a Journal kept by his mother during a visit to Germany at the close of the last century. This diary is curious on many accounts, but its chief interest consists in the notices of persons with whom the writer was brought into more or less familiar contact. Among these, the first place in point of interest must be given to the following exceedingly interesting account of Lord Nelson and Lady Hamilton when they were at Dresden in 1800. Little has hitherto been known of this visit. In fact, all that Mr. Pettigrew, Lord Nelson's biographer, mentions respecting it is comprised in these few lines:—"In two days he reached Dresden, where Mr. Elliot was British Minister. Prince Xavier, the brother of the Elector of Saxony, here visited Nelson. The celebrated Dresden Gallery was thrown open for his inspection and his friends, and they remained eight days in the city, admiring its many beauties and receiving entertainments at the Court, and when they took their departure, gondolas magnificently fitted up were in readiness to convey them to Hamburg." In curious contrast to this stately account, the reader cannot but peruse with interest the subjoined extracts from the private diary of an eyewitness, who was evidently possessed of great powers of observation and discrimination of character.

"Oct. 2.—Dined at the Elliots'. While I was playing at chess with Mr. Elliot the news arrived of Lord Nelson's arrival, with Sir William and Lady Hamilton, Mrs. Cadogan, mother of the latter, and Miss Cornelia Knight, famous for her 'Continuation of Rabelais,' and 'Private Life of the Romans.'

"Oct. 3.—Dined at Mr. Elliot's with only the Nelson party. It is plain that Lord Nelson thinks of nothing but Lady Hamilton, who is totally occupied by the same object. She is bold, forward, coarse, assuming, and vain. Her figure is colossal, but, excepting her feet, which are hideous, well shaped. Her bones are large, and she is exceedingly *embonpoint*. She resembles the bust of Ariadne: the shape of all her features is fine, as is the form of her head, and particularly her ears; her teeth are a little irregular, but tolerably white; her eyes light blue, with a brown spot in one, which, though a defect, takes nothing away from her beauty and expression. Her eyebrows and hair are dark, and her complexion coarse. Her expression is strongly marked, variable, and interesting; her movements in common life ungraceful; her voice loud, yet not disagreeable. Lord Nelson is a little man, without any dignity; who I suppose must resemble what Suwarrow was in his youth, as he is like all the pictures I have seen of that general. Lady Hamilton takes possession of him, and he is a willing captive, the most submissive and devoted I have seen. Sir William is old, infirm, all admiration of his wife, and never spoke to-day but to applaud her. Miss Cornelia Knight seems the decided flatterer of the two, and never opens her mouth but to show forth their praise; and Mrs. Cadogan, Lady Hamilton's mother, is what one might expect. After dinner we had several songs in honour of Lord Nelson, written by Miss Knight, and sung by Lady Hamilton. She puffs the incense full in his face; but he receives it with pleasure, and snuffs it up very cordially. The songs all ended in the sailor's way, with 'Hip, hip, hip, hurra,' and a bumper with the last drop on the nail, a ceremony I had never heard of or seen before.

"Oct. 4.—Accompanied the Nelson party to Mr. Elliot's box at the Opera. Lady Hamilton paid me those kinds of compliments which proves she thinks mere exterior alone of any consequence. She and Lord Nelson were wrapped up in each other's conversation during the chief part of the evening.

"Oct. 5.—Went by Lady Hamilton's invitation to see Lord Nelson dressed for court. On his hat he wore the large diamond feather, or ensign of sovereignty, given him by the Grand Signior; on his breast the Order of the Bath, the Order he received as Duke of Bronte, the diamond star, including the sun or crescent, given him by the Grand Signior, three gold medals obtained by three different victories, and a beautiful present from the King of Naples. On one side is his Majesty's picture, richly set and surrounded with laurels, which spring from two united anchors at bottom, and support the Neapolitan crown at top; on the other is the Queen's cypher, which turns so as to appear within the same laurels, and is formed of diamonds on green enamel. In short, Lord Nelson was a perfect constellation of stars and orders.

"Oct. 6.—Dined with Lord Nelson at the Hôtel de Pologne. Went in the evening to a concert given to him by Count Marcolini. Paris sung a fine bass, with the lowest tones I ever heard; and Ciciarelli, a soprano, who has lost his voice, but declaims well. From thence went to a party at Countess Richtenstein's, Lady Hamilton loading me with all marks of friendship at first sight, which I always think more extraordinary than love of the same kind.

"Oct. 7.—Breakfasted with Lady Hamilton, and saw her represent in succession the best statues and paintings extant. She assumes their attitude, expression, and drapery with great facility, swiftness, and accuracy. Several Indian shawls, a chair, some antique vases, a wreath of roses, a tambourine, and a few children are her whole apparatus. She stands at one end of the room with a strong light to her left and every other window closed. Her hair (which, by-the-by, is never clean) is short, dressed like an antique, and her gown a simple calico chemise, very easy, with loose sleeves to the wrist. She disposes the shawls so as to form Grecian, Turkish, and other drapery, as well as a variety of turbans. Her arrangement of the turbans is absolutely sleight-of-hand, she does it so quickly, so easily, and so well. It is a beautiful performance, amusing to the most ignorant, and highly interesting to the lovers of art. The chief of her imitations are from the antique. Each representation lasts about ten minutes. It is remarkable that, though coarse and ungraceful in common life, she becomes highly graceful, and even beautiful, during this performance. It is also singular that, in spite of the accuracy of her imitation of the finest ancient draperies, her usual dress is tasteless, vulgar, loaded, and unbecoming. She has borrowed several of my gowns, and much admires my dress, which cannot flatter, as her own is so frightful. Her waist is absolutely between her shoulders. After showing her attitudes she sung, and I accompanied. Her voice is good and very strong, but she is frequently out of tune; her expression strongly marked and various; but she has no shake, no flexibility, and no sweetness. She acts her songs, which I think the last degree of bad taste. All imperfect imitations are disagreeable, and to represent passion with the eyes fixed on a book, and the person confined to a spot, must always be a poor piece of acting *manqué*.

She continues her demonstrations of friendship, and said many fine things about my accompanying her at sight. Still she does not gain upon me. I think her bold, daring, vain even to folly, and stamped with the manners of her first situation much more strongly than one would suppose, after having represented Majesty, and lived in good company fifteen years. Her ruling passions seem to me vanity, avarice, and love for the pleasures of the table. She shows a great avidity for presents, and has actually obtained some at Dresden by the common artifice of admiring and longing. Mr. Elliot says she will captivate the Prince of Wales, whose mind is as vulgar as her own, and play a great part in England. Dined with the Elliots. He was wonderfully amusing. His wit,

his humour, his discontent, his spleen, his happy choice of words, his rapid flow of ideas, and his disposition to playful satire, make one always long to write short-hand, and preserve his conversation.

"Oct. 8.—Dined at Madame de Loss's, wife to the Prime Minister, with the Nelson party. The Electress will not receive Lady Hamilton on account of her former dissolute life. She wished to go to Court, on which a pretext was made to avoid receiving company last Sunday, and I understand there will be no Court while she stays. Lord Nelson, understanding the Elector did not wish to see her, said to Mr. Elliot, 'Sir, if there is any difficulty of that sort, Lady Hamilton will knock the Elector down, and — me, I'll knock him down too.' She was not invited in the beginning to Madame de Loss's, upon which Lord Nelson sent his excuse, and then Mr. Elliot persuaded Madame de Loss to invite her. From Madame de Loss's visited Mrs. Newman, a very obliging entertaining woman of the *tiers état*, thence to sup at Mrs. Rawdon's. Here I found Lady W— in the midst of a very animated discourse on precedence, which I soon found took its rise from Mr. Elliot's having led me into dinner at Madame de Loss's before her and another lady who had place. She politely told me he showed his ignorance and his impertinence, and she was sorry he knew no better. I had been so amused by his conversation at dinner, I had quite forgot the indecorum.

"Oct. 9.—A great breakfast at the Elliot's, given to the Nelson party. Lady Hamilton repeated her attitudes with great effect. All the company, except their party and myself, went away before dinner; after which Lady Hamilton, who declared she was passionately fond of champagne, took such a portion of it as astonished me. Lord Nelson was not behind-hand, called more vociferously than usual for songs in his own praise, and, after many bumpers, proposed 'The Queen of Naples,' adding, 'She is my queen; she is queen to the backbone.' Poor Mr. Elliot, who was anxious the party should not expose themselves more than they had done already, and wished to get over the last day as well as he had done the rest, endeavoured to stop the effusion of champagne, and effected it with some difficulty; but not till the lord and lady—or, as he calls them, Antony and Moll Cleopatra—were pretty far gone. I was so tired, I returned home soon after dinner, but not till Cleopatra had talked to me a great deal of her doubts whether the Queen would receive her, adding, 'I care little about it; I had much sooner she would settle half Sir William's pension on me.' After I went, Mr. Elliot told me she acted Nina intolerably ill, and danced the 'Tarantola.' During her acting Lord Nelson expressed his admiration by the Irish sound of astonished applause, which no written character can imitate, and by crying every now and then, 'Mrs. Siddons be —.' Lady Hamilton expressed great anxiety to go to court, and Mrs. Elliot assured her it would not amuse her, and that the Elector never gave dinners or suppers. 'What?' cried she, 'no guttling!' Sir William also this evening performed feats of activity, hopping round the room on his backbone, his arms, legs, star, and ribbon all flying in the air.

"Oct. 10.—Mr. Elliot saw them on board to-day. He heard by chance, from a king's messenger, that a frigate waited for them at Hamburg, and ventured to announce it formally. He says:—'The moment they were on board, there was an end of the fine arts, of the attitudes, of the acting, the dancing, and the singing. Lady Hamilton's maid began to scold, in French, about some provisions which had been forgot, in language quite impossible to repeat, using certain French words which were never spoken but by *men of the lowest class*, and roaring them out from one boat to another. Lady Hamilton began bawling for an Irish stew, and her old mother set about washing the potatoes, which she did as cleverly as possible. They were exactly like Hogarth's actresses dressing in the barn.' In the evening I went to congratulate the Elliots on their deliverance, and found them very sensible of it. Mr. Elliot would not allow his wife to speak above her breath, and said, every now and then, 'Now, don't let us laugh to-night; let us all speak in our turn, and be very, very quiet.'"

POPULAR SCIENCE.

THE STUDY OF ENTOMOLOGY.

So much pleasure results from the investigation of these forms of beauty, in which are combined the poetry of life and motion, and so many advantages have been derived by the cultivation of men's perceptive and reflective faculties by working in this unaccustomed field, that it does not seem unseasonable to bring the insect world under the notice of the thousands of persons who might be benefited by such an occupation of their leisure.

Kirby and Spence, in their "Introduction to Entomology," of which the first edition was published in 1815, strongly advocated the educational advantages of entomology, but to this it was objected by the *Edinburgh Review*,—

"That the habit of looking for microscopic differences or analogies among the legs or antennæ of gnats and spiders will render a person extremely acute in such matters, we have no manner of doubt: but how the quick perception of differences among resemblances, or the reverse, is to lead to that general intellectual eminence which constitutes an able lawyer, a discerning judge, a great general, a sagacious physician, a painter, an orator, or even an exciseman, we are really at a loss to conjecture. . . . It may very well be that natural history is too much despised in this country: we believe that it is; and we think it fully as laudable a pursuit as running after foxes or corrupting Cornish boroughs; but Messrs. Kirby and Spence seem to have forgotten that ours is a busy country—except those said fox-hunters, we scarcely know one who is not employed, whereas in Germany and elsewhere, if men did not dissect grubs and invent crabbed names, they must hang themselves from pure ennui."

This style of objection to Entomology has much decreased, yet we constantly meet with persons, of education too, who still use it. But in reality the argument proves too much; for, if it be true of entomology—and by entomology we mean now the scientific knowledge of insects, their structure, classification, and physiology, and not the mere collecting of specimens—it is also true of the study of the classics and mathematics in common use as means of training our perceptive and reasoning powers. By no process of teaching whatever can a youth, of deficient or even mediocre ability, be made into "an able lawyer, a discerning judge, a great general, a sagacious physician, a painter, an orator, or even an exciseman." He may be cultivated up to a certain point; but, if the necessary powers be not granted to him by Nature, it is quite certain no method of instruction can supply them. It has never been asserted that Entomology should supplant all or any other methods of educating the mental faculties, but there is no doubt that its advantages in this respect have been greatly underrated or overlooked. The study of Entomology will most undoubtedly assist the development of the mental powers, even the highest; but the amount of development under any system

depends not so much on the means used as on the native strength of the powers in the individuals, a position abundantly proved in the case of many men who have risen to eminence in spite of the most ordinary education, and under the most unfavourable circumstances. There were giants in the early days of the *Edinburgh Review*, and it deemed itself one of them; but its *dictum* respecting Entomology, although it influenced the judgment of many, and its echo is still heard in the land, has proved of no more real value than its appreciation of Byron and Keats; and we are now able to see that, if it wore a giant's clothes, they were often stuffed out with straw.

But besides its educational advantages for the young, Entomology has claims upon us in maturer age as men of work and business, although the *Edinburgh Review* thought that because ours is a busy country we should all but ignore or discourage its pursuit. On the contrary it may be contended that, for that very reason, we should cultivate a knowledge of it and the kindred sciences. We are so immersed in business, and are so liable, therefore, to become selfish and regardless of everything that does not bear a money value, that the love of a science, whose teaching brings us into immediate contact with Nature and Nature's God, should be sedulously fostered. Our population, however much in advance of others in all that pertains to material interests and the comforts of life, is confessedly far in arrear in its knowledge of Natural History, and the appreciation of beauty. See how this ignorance operates when our mercantile and working classes gain a brief respite from their exhaustive labour. From the want of knowing other objects on which to occupy their attention, they seek for amusement only within the bounds of their animal sympathies, or listlessly gaze on the contents of museums and works of art; so that, instead of recruiting their overtaken faculties, which by a law of nature *must* have recreation, their holiday is too often wasted in sensual indulgences or weariness. Inculcate in these men a love for the investigation of the structure and economy of organised beings, of whose very existence they now know absolutely nothing, and we open an exhaustless field of recreation, which, when once the taste for its investigation has been acquired, and simply because amusement would be afforded, would be trodden with eagerness, delight, and profit. Even if the science of Natural History were not advanced, the diffusion of knowledge could not but be productive of a good effect upon the minds of the learners; and, while a great increase to our knowledge of the economy of animals must result from the notice bestowed upon them by a large addition to the number of observers, at the same time a new pleasure—a thing that thousands seek in vain—would be given to multitudes. In this study of Natural History Entomology deserves a prominent place, because insects are always more or less at hand, and the acquisition of them requires no very expensive outlay,—matters of great importance to beginners and those not in affluent circumstances.

If, as Gray the poet said, "the best way to enjoy life is constantly to have something going on," then the entomologist is always in possession of the materials out of which to construct his happiness. Gray was an accomplished naturalist, and his remark had a special reference to natural history. In entomology something always is going on, every kind of insect has its special time, nay almost day of appearance; to learn this, and act upon the knowledge, and to study the various habits, contrivances, concealments, instincts, structure and order of any one class of insects is more than enough to employ the time of any individual, indeed no one ever knew an entomologist who had not work on hand; he could not be idle if he would.

"Heaven lies about us in our infancy," says Wordsworth; it remains about us always, only our hearts become hardened to the celestial influence. But to him who knows the beauty of insect forms, and the wonderful phases of life, even under the guise of death, these forms assume at different periods of their development, there come glimpses of the spirit land and vouchers for its reality. And, as he sees the eternal youth of nature constantly renewed before him, his faith in his own destiny becomes "the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things not seen." His firmest conviction is that—

"Life mocks the idle hate
Of his arch enemy death—yea, seats himself
Upon the tyrant's throne—the sepulchre,
And of the triumphs of his ghastly foe
Makes his own nourishment."

It is related of Stothard, an artist celebrated for his wealth of design, that being once at a loss how to draw the wings of a reclining sylph, he was advised by a friend to give her those of a butterfly; he adopted the hint, and determined to paint them from the butterfly itself. He went into the country, caught a "Peacock," brought it home, and commenced sketching it, but left it before the drawing was finished, and in his absence a servant swept it off the table and it was lost. Again he caught a butterfly, but this time of another species, "the Tortoiseshell;" he was astonished at the combination of colours that was presented on the wings of the exquisite little creature, and from that time he became a hunter of butterflies. He often said that no one knew what he owed to these insects: they had taught him the finest combinations in that difficult branch of art—colouring.

To the cultivated entomologist, recollections of classic lore are called up by living representatives of the personages of the ancient mythology. The chrysalis of a butterfly attached by a thread to a wall, is Andromeda chained to a rock awaiting Perseus in the shape of a sunbeam, to release her from the monster Winter; or a fixed chrysalis may represent Prometheus bound to a rock, and the vulture which fed upon his liver be typified by the ichneumon-larva which feeds within and upon the living body. The bursting of a butterfly from its pupa-case is the birth of Hebe, the goddess of youth. An insect making its way to its mate through all difficulties and obstacles is Cupid, the god of love. The solemn-looking, untiring bee, ever laying up store of sweets, is Minerva, the goddess of wisdom. An ant, working at its nest without ceasing, and removing particles larger and heavier than itself, represents the labours of Hercules. Every swift-winged insect is a Mercury bent upon delivering a message from the gods. Acis and Galatea are represented by the butterflies bearing their names, and all the old deities and heroes live again in insect forms. The woods have their Dryads and the streams their Naiads, all resolved into visible shapes, and the whole earth becomes an Elysium. Can we then wonder that the Greek mind, so sensitive to the appeals of physical beauty, should have peopled the earth with ideal creations, so that every place, object, and circumstance had its tutelary deity.

We are guided by a purer faith than was vouchsafed to the Greeks, yet we have no conception of how much we lose by not cultivating the ideal faculty, nor how much there is in nature that we do not see; and well would it be for us if, as a nation, we could awake to the elevating influence which a poetic idea of creation would bestow upon us. Wordsworth was profoundly impressed by our shortcomings in this respect when he wrote—

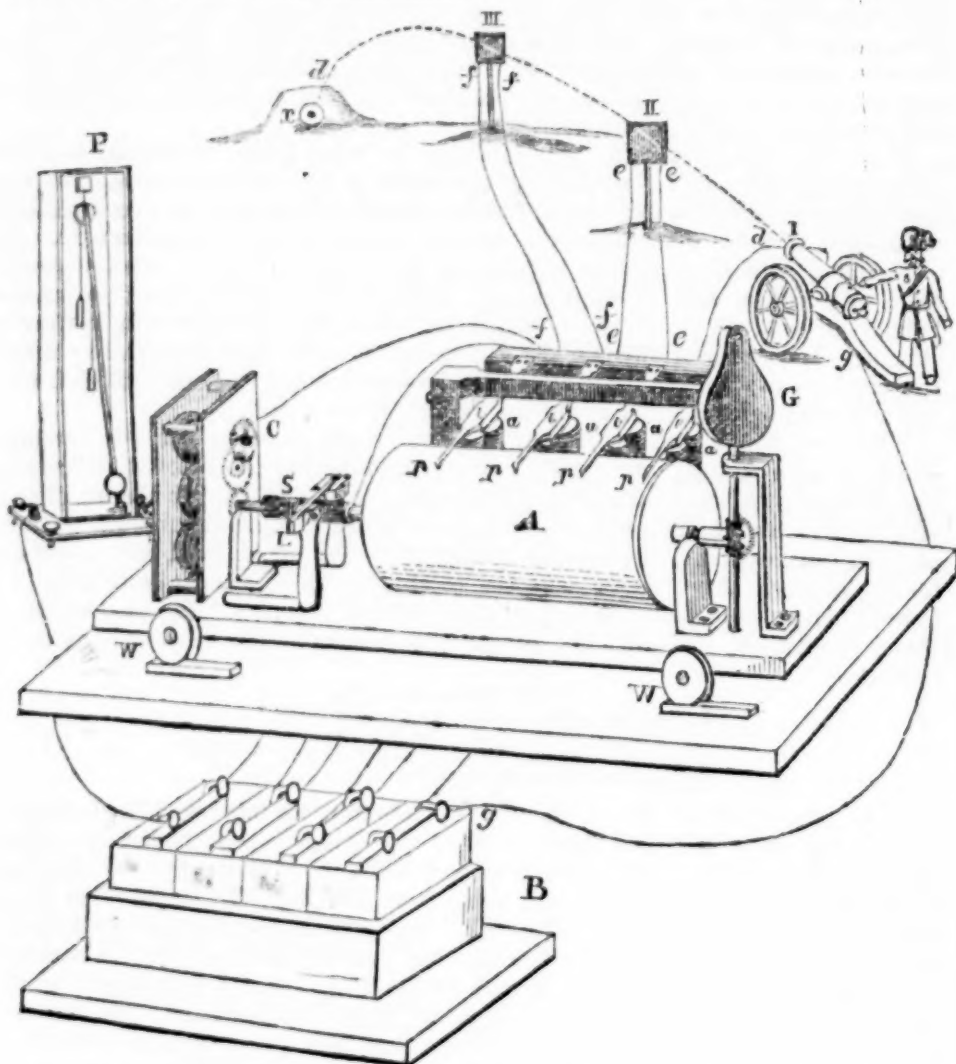
"The world is too much with us; late and soon,
Getting and spending we lay waste our powers;
Little we see in Nature that is ours;
We have given our hearts away, a sordid boon!
This sea that bares her bosom to the moon,
The winds that will be howling at all hours,
And are up-gathered now like sleeping flowers;
For this, for everything we are out of tune;
It moves us not. Great God! I'd rather be
A pagan suckled in a creed outworn;
So might I standing on this pleasant lea,
Have glimpses that would make me less forlorn;
Have sight of Proteus coming from the sea,
Or hear old Triton blow his wreathed horn."

To those who would reclaim their fellow-men from the hurtful, or, at the least, frivolous pursuits that often employ their leisure hours, it is a matter of serious import what they will offer in their place. It is of no use to preach to men of the evil of idleness and self-indulgence, without, at the same time, giving them an alternative easily within their reach. That alternative is presented in natural history, of which Entomology is an important branch, and it would be a great thing even if at first only the negative advantage were reaped of rousing the masses from their apathy to nature, by drawing them into a new sphere of thought, and so removing them from the *ennui* of their present social life. It is too much to expect that any Government will be alive to the advantage of fostering in this way pure and elevated taste; indeed it is doubtful if this be a matter in which Government could beneficially interfere. Rather is it a subject for individual earnestness and energy, but deserving the co-operation of all true and patriotic naturalists.

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

THE ELECTROCHRONOSCOPE.

The figure given below is that of the electrochronoscope, lately manufactured for Major-General Anstruther.



The object of this instrument is to measure exactly the time of flight of a projectile between two given points. Various modes of taking the time of flight have been in use for years, the simplest is a sort of clock, the dial of which is divided into 600 parts, and which is traversed by a hand once a minute, and which may be set going and stopped by touching a lever. A second hand may be detached from it in its course, so that it registers three points of time, and gives readings of tenths of seconds. But as the accuracy depends upon the manipulation of the observer, it is subject to considerable error. The self-registering principle is, therefore, the only one which will give reliable results. A beautiful self-registering chronoscope, by Navey, of Brussels, is used at Woolwich, the results of which are said to be surprising; the only drawback is that each observation requires a rather troublesome calculation to reduce it to real time.

General Anstruther had an apparatus designed by Mr. Holmes, which was entrusted to Messrs. Elliott for execution. The principle was, in the main, the same as in the instrument of the woodcut. A cylinder, covered with paper soaked in a solution of ferrocyanide of potassium, had to revolve, driven by a weight. Small iron wheels, attached to slight springs, had to trace by decomposition blue lines on the paper, on the principle of Baines's electric telegraph, as long as an electric current passes. But when put into practice it was found that, if we may call it so, a sort of ink was formed which continued to mark after the current was broken, and consequently the object aimed at, extreme accuracy, was lost.

In conjunction with Mr. Bashley Britten, Messrs. Elliott altered the plan. Instead of making use of chemical decomposition by an electric current, they substituted metallic papers for the cylinder, *A*, and a clockwork, *C*, for the weights. At *a, a, a, a*, are four electro-magnets made of the same material in exactly the same manner, a matter of some importance as we shall presently see. The keepers are attached to springs, which carry metallic points, *p, p, p, p*. When the electric current makes the iron magnetic, the keeper is attracted, and the metallic point presses gently on the paper. One of the electro-magnets is in connection with a seconds pendulum, which, at every beat, makes connection for a fraction of a second, or, in other words, makes the magnet attract the keeper every second, and dots on the paper cylinder. Thus we have a second registered independently of the velocity with which the cylinder rotates. If the rotation is quicker, the two dots will be further apart, and *vice versa*. The three other electro-magnets are in electric connection with three targets, one of which is distant about one foot from the muzzle of the gun; the second and the third at 100 or 200 yards, or at any other required distance. The first target consists of a simple copper wire, which is broken by the ball leaving the gun. The targets Nos. 2 and 3 consist of frames of common deal 6 feet square, across which is stretched repeatedly a copper-wire, close enough to allow no ball to pass it without breaking it. These frames can be raised to the angle of elevation at which the gun is fired. The cylinder, *A*, has a screw, *S*, cut on its axis, which serves as a means of propelling it, while the metallic points draw, so that the lines do not fall upon each other, but run spirally round the cylinder with the pitch of the screw. For this purpose, the cylinders with clockwork are fixed to a carriage, which runs on rails, while the lever, *L*, and the metallic points at *p, p, p, p*, remain stationary.

The apparatus is used in the following manner. Galvanic batteries are connected with each of the four electro-magnets; one takes into its circuit the seconds pendulum; the second the target at the muzzle of the gun; the third, the target at 100 yards' distance; the fourth, the target at 200 yards' distance. The pendulum is then set going and dots on the cylinder, which, however, is not yet in motion. The clockwork is now set going, and the three points draw lines. After one or two revolutions, the command to fire is given, when the ball, in leaving the gun, breaks the wire of No. 1 target, and point No. 1 ceases to draw. When the second target is struck point No. 2 ceases to draw; when the third target is struck, point No. 3 ceases to draw. The clockwork is now stopped. To ascertain the time represented by these lines, the paper is taken off. Where point 1 has ceased to draw is the starting point or zero; the length of the second and third lines will give seconds and fractions of seconds, when compared with the distance of the two dots made by the pendulum, for which purpose a scale may be used, or a very ingenious contrivance of Mr. Holmes—a compass, to one leg of which a screw is attached, with 100 turns, a nut turns in the second leg and subdivides one turn of the screw into 100 parts. By moving the trammels either way the points of the compass can be made to take in the two dots which represent the second, and each part of the screw will give the hundredth part of a second, be the distance small or great.

A second cylinder is provided, which may be prepared with metallic paper beforehand, so as to save time.

Various objections may be raised to this apparatus, to some of which we will briefly allude. Electricians will point out that after the current is broken, residue magnetism in the soft iron will retard the release of the keeper. This error is provided for, firstly, by making the electro magnets exactly alike, as mentioned before, so that there is the same retardation in the release of the three different keepers, and this error will so be neutralized; secondly, by not bringing the keeper into actual contact with the iron, but interposing a thin brass pin. A second objection might be, that the different length of the wires might have different effects upon the magnets; if this should be the case resistance coils may be enclosed in the currents to make them exactly alike. A third source of error, and perhaps the most inconvenient one, is, that when the three points draw there is more friction than when they are successively released, but as the amount of friction can be ascertained it can be allowed for.

Only by a great number of reliable experiments can the theory of the flight of projectiles be elucidated; and Major-General Anstruther would gladly lend his apparatus to any gentleman wishing to make experiments with it, only expecting that the wires may be found by the party performing the experiments, and that he should be made acquainted with the results.

The instrument may be inspected at the makers, Messrs. Elliott, Brothers, in the Strand.

CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

OUR remarks in a recent number on the signal failure of the popular hydraulic method of extinguishing fires have occasioned some discussion, and elicited several suggestions on improved means of effecting the object. The greater number of proposals consist in the employment of gases, such as nitrogen, carbonic or sulphurous acids, which are non-supporters of combustion. These suggestions are all of the type which has been practically carried out in the case of Phillips' Fire Annihilator. A large volume of one of the above gases projected into a blazing mass would prove perfectly efficacious in putting out flame; and if that were all that was required, nothing could answer better than the Fire Annihilator, which, we believe, owes its quenching properties to carbonic acid, liberated in large quantities through the reaction of oil of vitriol upon a carbonate. The effect of such an agent as this is, however, very evanescent. Flame is stifled; but whilst the cause of flame—red-hot combustible matter—is untouched, the first breath of wind, or even the ascending power of the hot gas itself, would at once allow the atmosphere to fan the glowing fuel again into a blaze. Of a somewhat similar character is the suggestion made by a French correspondent, that steam should be employed. This would be open to the objection mentioned above; and, moreover, it was in reality the chief agent used to combat the progress of the London Bridge conflagration, the greater bulk of the water sprinkled on to that fire being actually converted into steam by the radiant heat before it touched the burning mass.

Another and far more promising line of inquiry to follow, is the employment of some chemical substance dissolved in the water. It is, however,

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rather a remarkable fact that almost the first proposition of this kind should have advocated the use of one of the very worst things that could be employed—sulphuric acid. A number of gentlemen, under the direction of the committee of the London Fire Brigade establishment, have already made experiments with this agent, for the purpose of extinguishing flames. A gallon of sulphuric acid having been mixed with half a ton of water, was discharged through the hose of a fire-engine upon the fire. Some surprise has been expressed that this did not decrease their violence; on the contrary, according to all accounts, it appeared to add fresh vigour to the flames. This is what might have been expected beforehand. Sulphuric acid would act on a large fire almost in the same way as saltpetre; under the influence of a red heat, it decomposes into oxygen gas and sulphurous acid, the former of which would increase tenfold the energy of combustion. This very agent, sulphuric acid, has, in fact, been lately employed as a most abundant source of pure oxygen, which is obtained from it by the simple agency of heat; and everyone who has attended a popular scientific lecture knows the extraordinary energy with which combustible bodies burn when in contact with this gas.

A far better suggestion has come from Messrs. Jesse Rust & Co., of the Lambeth glass-works. They propose to use a solution of soluble glass (water-glass) instead of water. They write—"The properties of soluble glass are too well known to need mention; suffice it to say, that there is nothing inflammable in its composition, and that wood, for instance, when saturated with it, will not burn. A quantity might be kept at various depôts, and a tank upon wheels could follow the engine in case of being called out, and as the solution could be kept in a concentrated form, it could be diluted with water from the mains, and discharged through the hose of the engine." This is a very excellent suggestion, and by all means deserves trial; the water would be deprived of none of its beneficial action, whilst the residue of glass which it would leave upon evaporation would saturate the combustible matter upon which it fell with an impervious mineral varnish, which would offer an important barrier to the further progress of disorganization.

It is, however, very probable, that soluble glass may not be the best chemical that could be employed for this purpose. Indeed, a commission of the Society of Arts of Berlin reported very unfavourably of its use, when it was first recommended by Fuchs as an anti-inflammatory agent, on the occasion of the conflagration of the Theatre Royal at Munich. Chemists know many salts which possess the desired property of communicating incomcombustibility to inflammable bodies. Of these, tungstate of soda, biborate of ammonia, phosphate of ammonia, sulphate of ammonia, and superphosphate of lime, offer the greatest chance of success. Some, such as tungstate of soda, and phosphate or biborate of ammonia, would be too expensive to be tried on the large scale; but the sulphate of ammonia or superphosphate of lime, seem to present all the requisite advantages to recommend them to immediate trial. They are very cheap, could be supplied in any quantity, and possess, in a pre-eminent degree, the property of rendering combustible bodies non-inflammable. The former is now largely employed for protecting muslin dresses from catching fire on contact with a flame; a solution containing ten per cent. of the salt being found very efficacious.

Owing, however, to the fixed nature of superphosphate of lime in the fire, this latter salt would probably be most useful for extinguishing any large mass of combustible matter. The subject is of such importance that no time should be lost in putting it to the test of experiment. On a small scale we have found it perfectly successful, and the proper authorities ought at once to institute inquiries into the matter, with a view to the adoption of some such simple adjunct to the fire-extinguishing powers of the fire-engine.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

CAPT. PARKER SNOW has given a farewell luncheon to his friends on board the *Endeavour*, arctic discovery yacht, at Gravesend, previously to starting, as he hopes, on his search of the Franklin expedition. His present plans are to leave Newcastle, where he now is, directly some matters are completed. Here, his cause is being warmly taken up to procure further aid, the means at present at his disposal being inefficient to avoid the risk of being caught in the ice and having to winter.

About £600 has been subscribed, but not all paid in. With what has been obtained, and from his own resources, the vessel, with everything on board, is ready for the voyage, without any claim to stop her. If more funds are forthcoming to complete what is wanted, then Capt. Snow will proceed; if not, he speaks of yielding to the advice of his committee and friends by waiting longer, and trying the route *viâ* Behring Strait.

But he is determined to go on if there be any possibility of his doing so, as he is most anxious not to lose this season. His route would be up Baffin's Bay on the west side, which is almost sure to be open, thence to hurry on to Beechey Island. Once there he considers his party safe, for the depôt at that place is sufficient, in everything useful and eatable, to support one hundred men for two years.

Should he get to Beechey, and the season be still open, he means to fill up stores and go on to King William's Land, there to winter and to try to solve the Franklin mystery. Unfortunately he has no instruments, except a few kindly furnished by Mr. Glaisher, of the Royal Observatory, by Mr. Johnson (who is constantly adding to the comforts of the party), and those he himself possesses. If he gets near the magnetic pole, nothing can be done by him; the Admiralty having refused everything asked for.

It must be borne in mind, that in the present incomplete state of equipment, Capt. Snow cannot risk being caught in the ice, a prudence due to those who accompany him. If the ice be found too heavy, the party will have to return and try the southern route.

At Newcastle, if sufficient funds are obtained, Captain Snow will finish there what may be necessary in the outfit. "For myself," Captain Snow writes, "I am as buoyant and hopeful as ever, though with only a third of the means I had expected." And he desires, through our columns, to thank the many friends who have encouraged and aided him.

M. Glæsener has recently effected considerable improvements in the chronoscopes produced by him last year. His chronoscope, with rotating cylinder, moves by a system of wheels acting by a weight. The cylinder is of brass, twelve centimetres in length and ten in diameter, and its surface is divided into 300 parts; its movement is extremely uniform, and the instrument is capable of making four turns per second for nearly half an hour. The cylinder turns simply on its axis, and not in a helix; nevertheless, there can be registered on its black surface all the successive traces which the indicator can make during 125 seconds, with as much

ease and certainty as if the cylinder had a combined movement of rotation and progression. This result is effected by means of a vertical circle, the circumference of which is divided into 500 parts, moving a single division only, while the cylinder makes a complete revolution, and by the aid of a multiplier fixed near this circle and communicating with the multiplier restoring the current; the needle of the one tracing its spots or dots on the back of the cylinder at the same time that the other marks a point in the black on the edge of the vertical circle. Thus the difficulty, or rather impossibility, of constructing a perfectly uniformly-moving helix is avoided. In both his cylinder-chronoscope and his clock-chronoscope the use of the electro-magnet is avoided. The indicator or register of the times corresponding to the commencement and end of an event consists in both of a single vertical multiplier, disposed in such a manner that the current which traverses its wire and that of the first screen being broken, its needle falls suddenly, makes a mark on the cylinder, and immediately raises itself again by the action of the current, restored and transmitted in the wire of the screen next following. The re-establishment of the current in the multiplier, and its transmission in the wire of the screen next following, whatever may be the number of the screens employed, and even when these are separated from each other by only a few yards, is very prompt. By means of a Flobert's pistol and a Lefauchaux pistol, M. Glæsener has broken the wires of two screens placed at a single yard from each other. Thus, while the ball traversed that short distance, the needle, highly sensitive and having no resistance to overcome in its movement, fell, marked, rose again, and fell afresh to mark a second time.

His chronograph thus manages itself, while the motion of the cylinder can be perceived by the indications of an index, which moves 500 times more slowly than it. The long time (two minutes five seconds) taken by the cylinder in accomplishing 500 turns, permits the determination with exactitude of an entire revolution by means of an ordinary watch. Velocity can thus be estimated to the twentieth part of a second, and the chronograph is available for the most various physical experiments. The multiplier re-establishing the current permits the employment in both chronoscopes of the induction-spark.

The current-restoring multiplier will moreover serve to decide if vibrations, long and short, are rigorously isochronal; it will also serve to determine the very short time during which a number of vibrations has been executed or produced.

An interesting communication has been received by Mr. William Logan, Glasgow, from the African expedition. It is dated from the *Pioneer*, off Johanna (Gomoro Islands), April 22nd, 1861, and the letter is by Mr. Charles Livingstone:—

The party had been up the Rovuma about thirty miles in the steamer. The appearance of the banks showed that it had fallen recently four or five feet; and while cutting wood on the 15th and 16th of March, it fell seven inches in twenty-four hours,—rather a serious matter in an unknown river. They had Bishop McKenzie and one of his clergymen on board, and the others were waiting at Johanna. They began to fear that if they proceeded farther the *Pioneer* might be unable to get down again before the rainy season; so they returned to the sea at once, determining to take them up the Shiré, and thence explore Nyassa and the Rovuma. The latter, they hope, will be the path into the Lake.

The scenery on the Rovuma much surpasses that on the lower Zambesi. In an hour after leaving the mangroves a charming country is entered, with a beautiful range of well-wooded hills on either side of the river. These ridges are, perhaps, 250 feet high near the sea, becoming higher as they stretch inland, until, about thirty miles from the coast, they attain an altitude of nearly a thousand feet. There is an abundance of valuable wood, such as ebony, a hard, heavy wood resembling mahogany, and fine species of fustic dyewood. The natives on the coast are a blackguardly-looking set of half-caste Arabs. The party nearly got into a row with a large body of them, armed with muskets and spears; but loaded revolvers and the pluck of our men had an excellent effect, and they were remarkably civil afterwards. The people improved as we got away from the coast, but were poor, and evidently oppressed by the Arab half-castes. Their language is similar to that of Senna and the Mangani people.

While getting ready for sea at the mouth of the river, the bishop made his first personal acquaintance with African fever. He worked very hard while we were in the river, and once, to the utter horror of the party, gave a Rovuma alligator an opportunity, the like of which no alligator ever had before, of immortalising itself, by devouring a live bishop! Fortunately, the monster was not ambitious of such renown.

On the day of putting to sea all the *Pioneer's* crew, officers and men, except the two quartermasters, were down with fever; and the bishop, with the two Livingstones and Dr. Kirk, a leading stoker and a sailor, had to steer, steam, and keep watch until the others recovered.

In a few days Mohilla, one of the Comoro Islands, was reached. This, like the others, is of volcanic origin, a mass of mountains and hills, frightfully scarred and furrowed, but covered with a dense green vegetation. The inhabitants are a mixed race of Arabs and their conquerors, the natives of Madagascar. The Queen is an intelligent lady, and speaks French fluently; the inhabitants are Mahomedans. We were gratified to find schools in Fumboné, the capital, in which girls as well as boys were learning to read. Two French agents, who were formerly in Madagascar, are now residing in the capital. The people are afraid of the French. One of the Queen's councillors, who speaks tolerable English, said, "We see English men at Johanna. English men grow rich, Johanna man grow rich, all grow rich together, but in Mayotta (one of the islands taken by the French in 1842), Mayotta man work, work all day, and all poor. French no pay. All same here if French come." Excellent sugar-cane grows, and abundance of rice (the dry kind), sweet potatoes; and they export rice, cattle, sheep, and goats. They are a sober race, as appears from the remarks of one of our quartermasters, an old man-of-war's man, who, going on shore, could not get any grog for love nor money.

A NEW NAME FOR A BOOK.—"The black native of Queensland" (Australia) it is stated by the Rev. Dr. Lang, "observes that the European implement, or book, has two covers or shells of a bluish colour, finely streaked and marked; that it opens and shuts, and that it has a hinge at the back; and in virtue of these characteristics, he assigns it its proper place in his system, and names it *mooycom*—A MUSCLE! Nay, from this root he forms a derivation or compound to designate general literature, or everything that is done with the book, whether in the shape of reading, writing, or arithmetic; for all this he designates *mooycom-yacca*, or MUSCLE-WORK!"

NEW MEMORIAL WINDOW.—A handsome window of painted glass, the first of a series, has just been put up in Glasgow Cathedral by Mr. Ballantine, of Edinburgh. It is erected by the Chevalier Burnes, K.H., head and representative of the family of the poet Burns, in memory of his brothers, Sir Alexander and Charles Burnes, who fell in Cabal in 1841, and of a son who was killed before Lucknow in an attempt to save the life of a little child.

CORRESPONDENCE.

SPECTRUM OF COMET.—NEW METEOR.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—Allow me to take exception at the assertion of a correspondent of your scientific staff who affirms to have seen the dark lines, D, E, b, &c., of the solar spectrum in its light. With two excellent 45° prisms that originally belonged to Mr. Fraunhofer, and with which he first examined these lines, I examined the spectrum of the comet on Sunday night, the 30th of last month, in comparison with the spectrum of the moon, just rising, and though I gave a full hour's attention and scrutiny partly to the dispersion of the open air view of it, and partly to that of its image gathered in an achromatic telescope of 1½ in. aperture, I could not see the slightest variation in the brilliancy of its spectrum from one end to the other; whereas, the waning moon, though a very wide crescent, exhibited dark bands in the red and yellow, C f and d, and the usual brilliant yellow band between the dark lines D and δ. All variety of this kind was, so far as I could discern, absolutely wanting in the spectrum of the comet.

I beg to apprise you of the appearance here to-night of a meteor of prodigious length and duration. The meteor was larger than Jupiter or Venus at their brightest, and during the early and visible portion of its path left a tail which lasted for one or two seconds after the meteor had burst behind the clouds of the horizon. The explosion was accompanied with a very vivid light, and the whole course of nearly 90° was accomplished, with an apparently uniform speed, in about three seconds of time. It started close to the pole of the ecliptic, and passing between the two head stars of the Dragon, was judged to pass between the head stars of Hercules and the Serpent-bearer, which were behind clouds at the moment, and to have terminated near η of the latter constellation, also behind clouds, 18° above the horizon, and 10° to south of the point where the moon had just set.

Hoping that you will receive from other quarters accounts of this appearance, I remain, Sir, your obedient servant,
Hawkhurst, Kent, July 16, 1861. ALEXANDER S. HERSCHEL.

THE COMET.

SIR,—As future observations of the comet, in its receding course, are not likely to be productive of anything very new or remarkable, I beg permission to close, by a few additions, the series which you have done me the favour to publish in your columns.

July 8. Generally clear sky; nucleus more diffused than ever with 460; merely a condensed patch at the end of a dull yellow sector; even the micrometer does not bring it to a point. Sector, with this power, much as in the last observation, but the circular outline is almost lost, and it fades down into the coma, without any surrounding vacancy as before. A mean of 3 measures of position gives the bright beam, a c, in Fig. 6, an angle of 271°, implying, from its increase, if it can be sufficiently trusted, a swinging motion similar to that observed by Bessel in Halley's comet. In the comet-finder the preceding side of the tail, according to the comet's orbital motion, appears as a faint narrow ray, estimated at five miles in breadth, and extending for several degrees; the other side of the tail is equally wide, but fainter, and perhaps thirty miles long, fading gradually away; it comes off from the coma with a kind of bend, as if the longer ray had occupied the axis of the tail, and a corresponding minor branch had been missing on the opposite side of the coma—in fact, I was so deceived by this impression as to mistake the true construction of the tail, and did not discover my error till the next observation. It is represented in Fig. 7. The length, to the naked eye, was 14° or 15°.

July 10. A transparent night. The comet is a beautiful object to the naked eye, distinctly white, as it has been in fact for some time—in the comet-finder tinged with bluish green, a singular change from its first aspect. With this eyepiece, 110, and 460, the respective appearances are much as before, with decreasing intensity; the six envelopes of June 30 have all disappeared, the sector has no circular boundary, and the ray, a c, is very obscure; it seems inclined much as before. I now distinctly see the comparatively vacant space in the interior of the tail; the longer side is rather broader than on July 8, and less defined, the shorter and fainter stream can be traced for nearly 2°. The bend in coming off from the coma is very visible in the finder, and perceptible even with the naked eye. I estimated its length at 12° or 15°; my wife traced it further. The whole coma, in the comet-finder, subtends an angle of 18' or 20', and gives me the general impression of being more condensed and luminous than it was on June 30.

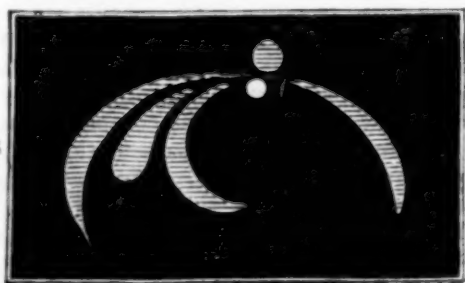
July 15. Rather hazy. Powers 27, 55, and 110, all give the head a faint bluish-green tinge; the nucleus seems to have a greenish yellow hue; brownish yellow, from want of light, with 460, which shows it extremely nebulous, but still exhibits a dim sector, evidently of less angular extent than before. 55 and 110 show no darker space in the tail, but it can be distinctly made out with the comet-finder, though not near the nucleus, and may be traced about 1° from the head; the streams on each side are now nearly alike in density and definition—possibly the orbitally preceding may be the more distinct. The bend near the head still seems to exist. The diameter of the coma is about 13 miles.

Hardwick Parsonage, July 16.

T. W. WEBB.

SIR,—I send you a drawing of the comet which appeared on the 30th June, as seen with my equatorial of 8' 6" and 6' 5" aperture, at about 11h. 40m. G.M.T. It is so different to any drawing I have seen in THE LONDON REVIEW or elsewhere, that I fear it may be considered an incorrect representation; but I believe it to be very much like the appearance I saw, consisting only of the head and its appendages.

The three streamers as seen inverted pointed upwards, and the single one downwards, nearly in a direct line from the pole star to the horizon. There was a very unusual



glare in the sky at the time, of a light golden hue, and the larger stars of all the constellations visible were seen more distinctly with the naked eye from my observatory, 2½ miles east of Worcester, than I ever recollect before seeing them.—Yours faithfully,
Worcester, 17th July, 1861. THOMAS BARNEY.

THE POSITION OF THE COMET TO AUGUST 15TH.

SIR,—The following approximate ephemeris is calculated from my elements inserted in THE LONDON REVIEW of July 13th:—

Greenw. Mean Midnight. h. m. s.	R.A. s.	N.P.D. °	Log. Dist. from Earth.
July 20 ... 14	40 21 ... 38	15 8 ... 15	9.78816
21 ... 14	42 50 ... 38	42 8 ... 15	
22 ... 14	45 0 ... 39	7 0 ... 15	
23 ... 14	46 52 ... 39	29 2 ... 15	
24 ... 14	48 40 ... 39	50 9 ... 15	
25 ... 14	50 24 ... 40	11 1 ... 15	9.87393
26 ... 14	52 5 ... 40	30 6 ... 15	
27 ... 14	53 35 ... 40	48 8 ... 15	
28 ... 14	55 2 ... 41	5 0 ... 15	
29 ... 14	56 24 ... 41	20 6 ... 15	
30 ... 14	57 44 ... 41	36 3 ... 15	9.94406

J. BREEN.

MUSIC.

ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA.—MARTHA.

MADLLE. PATTI has it all her own way now. She is the "prima donna assoluta" in the fullest acceptance of the word. Madame Grisi has just completed her reluctant farewells, though we are promised one more "last farewell" for her benefit. Madlle. Csillag has said "lebewohl" for this season, as Donna Elvira, in Don Giovanni; while Madame Miolan-Carvalho has gradually receded in proportion as Madlle. Patti advanced, leaving her best parts in the hands of her formidable little rival, who bids fair to become the pet of the public.

On Saturday last Madlle. Patti appeared for the first time as Lady Enrichetta, in Flotow's opera of Martha, a character totally different from those she had hitherto essayed. Her success, however, was equally decided. It is difficult to say to what school the music of "Martha" belongs; it is neither French, nor Italian, nor German; indeed, the best melody in the opera, the "Last Rose of Summer," is of pure Irish growth. And yet "Martha" is a very popular opera. The best proof of this is to be found in the large attendances which the work draws whenever it is performed, and the favour with which it is invariably received. We cannot help thinking that this success is partly owing to the amusing plot, and partly to the abundance of the tunes. To educated ears the melodies of "Martha," with few exceptions, appear trite and shallow,—more fit for a ballet than an opera; but this is exactly what pleases the majority of opera-goers, who care not so much for good, as for pleasing music. Here and there, it is true, we stumble upon a happy phrase, a pretty duet or quartet, and a spirited finale; but, on the whole, there is much ado about nothing. Neither do the singers find great scope for individual display: an aria for the tenor, a drinking-song for the baritone, a ballad for the soprano, and an aria di bravura for the contralto, make up the sum total of solo pieces. When entrusted, however, to first-rate singers, they are very effective. With Madlle. Patti, Madame Didiée, Signor Mario, and Signor Graziani, this is unquestionably the case.

Martha was another favourite part of poor Bosio. Her image stood before us, in vivid colours, during the entire performance; and although we cannot say that Madlle. Patti could make us forget her great predecessor, yet we must own that no other representative of the part approached to her so nearly. In the first two acts the impersonation of Madlle. Patti was highly intelligent and animated, no point overlooked, every movement, every gesture, full of meaning, while the whole performance evinced a happy combination of art and nature. Her singing was likewise marked by her usual facility and grace, always natural and musical. Where is the use of asking more of the young singer than she can give us? Her voice, we admit, is neither rich nor grand; but it is bright, sympathetic, and pleasing. She seldom strains it, and has a command over the technicalities of her art which at her age is truly marvellous. Shakes, staccato passages, chromatic scales, and roulades are executed with the greatest ease and neatness, and almost invariably in tune. Both Madlle. Patti and Madame Miolan-Carvalho possess high soprano voices; with this difference, however, that while the voice of the former is pure and sweet, that of the latter is shrill and disagreeable. Both belong to the light school of vocalization, in which few excel; but the one achieves what the other attempts. We have dwelt upon these points because there are persons who choose to shut their eyes to the superior claims of the new comer, for no other reason, apparently, than that she beats the older ones, and has the good fortune to succeed. We still hold that no singer who has of late appeared on the Italian stage gives so many signs of promise and genius as Madlle. Patti. Whether her physical power will increase with additional years, time only can decide. If she will confine herself for the present to parts such as Amina, Zerlina, and Rosina, and an occasional representation of Lucia, Martha, and Dinorah, or other similar characters suited to her individuality, we feel sure that her success will not only continue, but pave the way to greater and more lasting triumphs. The public on Saturday last was evidently delighted with the pretty Lady Enrichetta, and rewarded Martha with hearty applause, sundry encores, and endless recalls. Signor Mario, whose impersonation of the banished son "del Conte di Derby" is too well known to need description, was not in good voice, and sang rather flat during the early part of the evening, but, as is often the case with him, he afterwards atoned for his involuntary vacillation by singing his famous song, "M'appari . . . tutt' amor," most charmingly. The exquisite tenderness he throws into the words,—

Marta, Marta, tu sparisti,
E il mio cor col tuo n'andò;
Tu la pace mi rapisti,
Di dolore io morrò.

pronounced with the utmost clearness and accompanied by most eloquent action, renders this song one of the great features in the opera. We must be brief in speaking of the rest of the performance. Madame Didiée, Signor Graziani, Signor Taglifico, and M. Zelger, each and all, by their exertions, contributed to the pleasure of the evening. We wish we could say as much of the orchestra. Whether they had not enjoyed the advantage of a rehearsal, or the rehearsal had not received the attention of the conductor, all we know is, that we seldom witnessed a coarser performance at the Royal Italian Opera. The orchestration of the music in "Martha" is already sufficiently heavy and noisy to prevent the singers from being heard; but when the ponderous weight of the Covent Garden band falls upon them they are extinguished altogether. M. Zelger, it is true, can stand a slight shock, nor does Signor Graziani decline to volunteer an occasional shout, but poor Mario and delicate Patti are utterly

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unable to tower over such a din. In the spinning-wheel scene, which is marked in the score "pianissimo" and "con sordini," the accompaniment was so loud that scarcely a note of the singers could be heard, while the clattering of the rain on the roof added materially to the confusion of the "ensemble."

"Piu dolcezza e tolleranza" are the words in which Lionello rebukes Plumkett for his rough behaviour to the ladies in disguise. Why, as he sings them, does he not appeal to Mr. Costa?

THE ENGLISH OPERA ASSOCIATION (LIMITED).

What a pity the reign of Mirès is at an end! But for a few awkward facts, he might yet pride himself on his Roman title of "honest Mirès." Had he remained "honest," he would have been the very man for raising the funds wanted to establish the "English Opera Association on the joint-stock principle." Of course he would have objected to the word "principle," as being utterly useless to an honest man; his next move would have been to disjoin the stock, giving him greater scope for subsequent operations; and lastly, he would no doubt have wound up his speculation by sending "principle, stock, and company," to the *chemin d'enfer*. Alas! it is too late. The English Opera Association will have to do without him. After all, they do not want much. £50,000 in 25,000 shares of £2 each; £1 per share to be paid upon allotment, the remaining £1 per share to be called up, if necessary, by instalments of five shillings at intervals of not less than three months. This is all they require. By no means a ruinous speculation, for a capitalist especially, when it is remembered how noble is the object, how pure the motive. "The English Opera Association will be devoted to producing and maintaining English Opera in a complete manner." These are the opening words of the address. The next sentence is more explicit, and maintains that "English musical art demands the organisation of a national Opera on a more reliable and permanent basis than any private management can furnish." With the following axiom we entirely agree, viz.: "that the United Kingdom possesses composers, singers, instrumentalists, scenic artists, and every other resource, for producing English Opera in a style gratifying to amateurs, worthy of the public patronage, and acceptable to the national feeling." It would lead us too far to enumerate the many reasons set forth in the prospectus for founding the association, or to mention all the advantages and brilliant promises held out to the shareholders in embryo.

Another consideration, however, which has led to the promotion of the new association is worth citing, as being particularly to the point. It is "That no national establishment exists at present, having a perpetual succession for producing and maintaining English opera. English opera has been for several years undertaken by private managements, liable at any time to be abandoned by the contingency of death, pecuniary failure, or disinclination to continue on the part of those interested in them."

Among the names of those who constitute the Provisional Committee, we notice the following professional gentlemen:—Messrs. Balfe, Vincent Wallace, John Barnett of Cheltenham, George Linley, Charles Mackay, Henry Smart, W. H. Weiss, and others, altogether mustering twenty, with power to add to their number, which power we earnestly hope will not be abused. On the appointment, however, of the "Executive Council," which is to consist of nine members only (without power to add to their number, we suppose), the Provisional Committee will resign their functions, while the general management of the association will be vested in the Executive Council. So far, so good. In the present early state of proceedings, opinion would be useless, and advice out of place. The most difficult task will be to command the public confidence. When that not unimportant "desideratum" is obtained and the affair assumes a more substantial shape, it will then be time enough to look more closely into the matter, and to discuss the "pros and cons." There can be no doubt, however, that a good English opera, supported by the best artists, and conducted on a liberal scale, has a fair chance of success; but, on the other hand, it should be borne in mind that we are in possession of a Royal English Opera, under the management of Miss Pyne and Mr. Harrison, who have for several years worthily upheld the dignity of musical art in England, and doubtless intend to continue their exertions with renewed vigour. They have, moreover, the advantage of a magnificent house, a splendid orchestra, and the best English conductor. Nor should it be forgotten that we have also witnessed the downfall of a spirited manager, who, whatever may have been his errors and follies, cannot be accused of want of liberality, which, if it proves anything, proves the hazards of competition.

We fully admit that "the advancement of musical art in the United Kingdom is a subject in which many persons take a deep interest; and the foundation of a National Opera, supported by a powerful association, is destined to exalt the status of the musician, give new scope for the exercise of his genius, provide permanent employment for the artist, and furnish the metropolis and the provincial districts with first-class performances of English operas, thus conferring on the country an important benefit, available to, and appreciated by all classes;" but we are, nevertheless, inclined to doubt the possibility of two English operas existing at the same time, especially at a season of the year when "all classes" are not present in the metropolis in sufficient numbers to support two rival houses. We believe that the chances of success would have been far more considerable if, by some clever arrangement, the present Royal English Opera and the future English Opera Association could have combined their influence, position, and capital, to organize one national institution, while now they will injure each other, and probably both fail.

These remarks, let it be understood, are offered in the fairest spirit, and with the sole object of conducing to a good cause. Many a fair scheme has shipwrecked through want of prudence and foresight; but we trust the provisional committee are fully sensible of the great responsibility which rests upon them. For our part, we wish all speed to the "English Opera Association," and conclude by saying,—

—“Get money, money still,
And then let Virtue follow, if she will.”

OPERA CONCERTS AT THE CRYSTAL PALACE.

Have you seen Blondin? is a question now pretty certain to be answered in the affirmative. If any proof were wanting to show how powerful are his feet, and how attractive his feats, we would find it in the vast number of people who flock to the Crystal Palace to see him, high and low. Twenty, thirty, and forty thousand is, we are told, the average number of visitors on the days of his exhibition, while a modest two thousand is the maximum on the Grand Opera Concert days. M. Blondin, no doubt, enjoys a very high position in the Crystal Palace, but it is far below that of singers like Grisi, Tietjens, Giuglini, and Belletti, whose status is established on a much firmer footing. Slips there certainly are on both sides; in the orchestra as well as on the rope, but with this difference, that Blondin *pretends* to fall while Herr Manns stumbles in real earnest. We almost wonder the German conductor does not borrow the heavy "balancier" of the French acrobat. The performances would certainly gain in steadiness, and

Mr. Manns would have the additional advantage of securing his own body from the imminent peril in which it always appears. We merely throw out the hint, leaving it to the serious consideration of Herr Manns.

Like all other musical entertainments, the Friday Opera Concerts at the Crystal Palace are drawing to a close, the last but one having taken place yesterday week. Although excellent of the kind, we cannot say that the performances have been distinguished by variety or novelty; indeed, some of the vocal pieces have been repeated week after week. "Oh! mio Fernando" and "Home, sweet home" (à l'italienne), by Madame Grisi; "La Donna è Mobile," by Signor Giuglini; and "Parigi, o cara," by the same gentleman and Madlle. Tietjens (whose real name nothing short of a murder has established), we heard for the third time at these concerts this season. Madlle. Tietjens gave a classical tone to the concert by singing Beethoven's grand aria, "A qual furor," from "Fidelio," preceded by the march and chorus, "Grazie rendiam," and the overture to the same opera. The only novelty was the first appearance of M. Paquis, a French-horn player, of great repute in Paris. In a potpourri (fantasia we cannot call it) on airs from "Lucia," M. Paquis displayed a fine tone, a firm "embouchure," and an execution commensurate with the limited means of the instrument, though in expression he is somewhat deficient. Another feature in the programme of the day was Weber's "Invitation à la Valse," arranged for the orchestra by Berlioz, and well executed by the band. Our readers will, we hope, excuse us if we omit to mention the numerous encores and recalls with which the songs and the singers were honoured. The custom is really too absurd to dilate upon. But the artists have now hit upon the means of letting their voices again be heard without repeating their songs, as they substitute an additional piece for the one encored by the audience. They thus escape the bother of repetition, and so successfully cheat their tormentors.

ROYAL ACADEMY OF MUSIC.

The first examination of the elocution classes of the students of the Academy took place on Saturday last in the concert-room. For several years the practice of elocution, as an essential part of the study of vocal music, had fallen into disuse in the Academy. The frequent complaints of critics of the defective enunciation of the words of their songs by English singers, pointed to a want of training in this branch of art—for such it is, and a very important one. Too many of our vocalists cultivate their musical notes exclusively; sink the words altogether, as valueless; and are content to please the ear only, when by bringing out the poetry of their text, they might charm the ear and the intellect also. The perfection of music is when it is "married to immortal verse;" but there are singers, "whom we have heard others praise, and that highly," who completely and persistently separate the pair so wedded, and thus deprive song of all the power it derives from sense. That a vocalist should possess a distinct and intelligent enunciation must be admitted; and as it is an acquirement, not a gift of nature, it should be a part of all professional training.

The classes of the Royal Academy have supplied a too long existing deficiency; and the principal, Mr. Lucas, deserves special praise for reviving them. The students have made great progress under their teacher, Mr. Douglas Thompson, the present professor of elocution. Scenes from the "Hunchback," the "Honey-moon," the "Clandestine Marriage," and the fourth act of the "Merchant of Venice," were recited admirably. The same distinctness of delivery, and attention to the meaning of words, carried into the musical drama, and the art of singing generally, would be an immense improvement.

Mr. Goss, Mr. Dorrell, Mr. G. Macfarren, Mr. W. Macfarren, and other gentlemen of eminence in the musical profession were present, and united in congratulating Mr. Thompson on the marked success achieved by his pupils.

THE DRAMA.

THE FRENCH THEATRE AT ST. JAMES'S.

THE dramatic season has been remarkable in more respects than one. The astounding run of the "Colleen Bawn" at the Adelphi, M. Fechter's new version of "Hamlet," and Mr. Wigan's good luck in finding a "Scrap of Paper," not to mention the success of other theatres, has distinguished the present year in the recent annals of our London drama. It is impossible, however, not to look with regret upon the comparative failure of M. Lambert Denner's spirited efforts to secure adequate audiences at the French Theatre. We scarcely remember to have seen a more creditable troupe of French actors in London, and, singularly enough, such very poor attendances. The chief actors were in their own style unrivalled,—those who filled subordinate parts above mediocrity,—while the actresses were for the most part attractive, and two of them, especially superior to anything we have upon the English stage in an artistic point of view. M. Geoffroy, in his character of French bourgeois, went—we say so advisedly—as far as perfection could go. M. Paul Devaux, whether he acted the part of a younger man embodying the more respectable aspirations of the French youth of the day, "l'homme distingué," or that of the old marquis of the "ancien régime," was equally at home, equally striking, pleasing, and natural. M. Gravier never failed to prepossess his audience. M. Fabien, in his usual character of a young "roué" in high society, is immeasurably superior to the second-rate actors who always fill that part on our English stage, if, indeed, we except Mr. Mathews, though even here the comparison scarcely holds, as Mr. Mathews usually represents older men.

Of MM. Huguot, Lariou, and Bertrand we have already spoken on a former occasion, and if we merely remark, *en passant*, that the two former are not always *en scène*, a little apt, in fact, to forget the audience and to think of themselves and one another (a reproach we venture to extend in all good will to the pleasing and clever little actress Madlle. Milher), with this exception, they also are certainly good actors. If to all this we add Mdles. Camille Lemerle and Alice Théric, whose acting and appearance would grace any comedy of manners, and Madlle. Marchal, though less distinguished as an actress, is quite as attractive in person as any of the English actresses, who, by-the-by, are not her superiors in art,—it does seem very wonderful that, in this country of travellers, where every second man of any education would be ashamed to be thought not to know French, and in this metropolis, which boasts of Monsieur Roche, and all his aristocratical pupils, a small French theatre and the best French talent fail to secure even ordinary success.

If we try to ascertain the causes of this, they will probably appear to be many. In the first place, if the real truth must be told, very few English people know French really well. Those who can read it, seldom do so with comfort, and even then, are not in the habit of following the language when spoken. Many persons who read French historical books, and the "Revue des Deux Mondes," are yet totally in the dark with regard to the common language of daily French life, which forms the staple of interest in a French comedy. In the next place the bulk of the English people are not, like our neighbours, playgoers. The "play-

goers" in England, properly speaking, form a peculiar class, and of that class few know any language but their own. If we look further, we shall find a third reason for the ill-success of the French Theatre in St. James's, in the prudery, not to say ignorance, of a large portion of the public, who will flock to Mr. Buckstone's benefit, and applaud an exceedingly coarse and immoral play called "My Lord and my Lady," while they profess to entertain scruples regarding the alleged immorality of French plays, which, if the truth be told, may not always be a picture of English morality, but at any rate are never so coarse as they immediately become the moment we adapt them. Lastly, the French are, the English are not, a nation of artists. We have warm feelings, we like moral sweets, to have our emotions tickled, and to laugh a round laugh, but for art, as art, the majority of us care not a fig. A vulgar burlesque, beneath contempt, in which two men in savage attire leap-frog over one another, is infinitely more delightful to honest John Bull than the most refined and artistic picture of real life.

Such being the case, it is not, perhaps, so very strange after all, that people do not rush to compare the French version of "Hamlet," which M. Denery has just had the pluck to give for the final winding-up of his season. The comparison, nevertheless, at the present moment offers a three-fold and very racy interest in the three actors who have lately represented Hamlet. With two of these the English are familiar, and the third, M. Rouvière, now playing at St. James's, is the accredited interpreter of Shakspeare's master conception on the Parisian stage. It is well known that in Paris M. Fechter enjoyed but a second rate reputation, so much so, that, according to current gossip, when Madame Fechter heard of his astonishing success in London, she would not believe it. M. Rouvière, on the other hand, is accepted as the creator of Hamlet according to the French ideal. There is no small interest, then, in hearing the two, as it were, side by side; and while it is yet time, we recommend our readers not to lose the occasion. We do not pretend to say that the French translation of Hamlet by MM. Dumas and Meurice is a good one,—very far from it; but it is interesting to observe how impossible it is to translate Shakspeare into French thought, and the dribbles of the original preserved are sufficient to establish a tolerable estimate of the different actors' impersonations.

With all due deference to our artistic neighbours, moreover, we must award the palm to M. Fechter as an actor of *Hamlet*. M. Rouvière is, personally, not fitted to represent the part. His is the spite of a Malvolio, in which character he might appear to perfection; but he wants the marrow and fullness of Hamlet's nature, the broad sweep of his melancholy and elevation. As an actor, taken abstractedly, he is unquestionably a superior artist; but save in a very few points, he is everything except Hamlet. In two respects he excels M. Fechter,—in concentration and poignancy of grief. M. Fechter, on the other hand, reminds one a little too much of the effeminate courtiers of the time of King Charles, and on the whole, there seems a little truth, as well as wit, in the reported observation of an illustrious predecessor, "Do go and hear Fechter! Such fun!" What would he say of M. Rouvière?

Of course the scenic means at the disposal of the French company are very much inferior to those at the Princess's. But they have solved three important problems. The first is that Mr. Cornaglia contrives to get himself up in the character of Claudius, King of Denmark, so as to convey the true impression of being a "Satyr to Hyperion." Anything much more revolting could scarcely be seen than the scenic get-up of his countenance. Mr. Ryder, on the contrary, at the Princess's, really looks so very handsome and personable that all Hamlet's remarks fall cold, and we involuntarily think, "Well, well, he's not so bad after all. Any English matron would be glad enough to have Mr. Ryder for her husband, and think she might be proud of him too." The second point is that Madlle. Camille Lemerle, as Queen of Denmark, fully enlists our mingled sympathy and regret. Last, not least, Madlle. Milher makes a very fair Ophelia. To say she has perfected her part, would be exceeding the truth; but she is not utterly insipid, and she has real feeling and talent, she really loves Hamlet, and dies of grief,—a thing which no English Ophelia, perhaps, ever did before. On the whole, then, we may venture to counsel our Shakspearians to visit "Hamlet" at St. James's Theatre. If they smile at the version, and thank their stars that Shakspeare is all their own, they will at all events have the benefit of the superior self-satisfaction due to actual observation.

NECROLOGY OF EMINENT PERSONS.

PRINCE CZARTORYSKI.

On Monday, the 15th inst., at Paris, aged 91, Prince Adam George Czartoryski. This distinguished patriot was born at Warsaw, January 14, 1770. He was the head of a younger branch of the Tagellon royal family of Poland, and completed his studies in France and England. He took an active part in the affairs of his country as early as 1788, when he acted Chairman at an election to the Great Diet of Poland, which voted the reformed Constitution of the 3rd of May, 1791. After Kosciuszko's attempt to liberate Poland from Russian domination, on the partition of Poland in 1795, he and his brother were sent to St. Petersburg, by command of Catherine II., as hostages. Here Alexander was so charmed with the noble and manly character of the young Pole, that he became his intimate friend, and upon his accession to the throne appointed him Minister of Foreign Affairs, in which post Czartoryski conducted himself with so much prudence, that the envy which was at first excited soon gave way. In 1805 he subscribed, in the name of Russia, the treaty with Great Britain, and accompanied Alexander in the campaign of Austerlitz. Before the peace of Tilsit, which created the Duchy of Warsaw, he retired from public life, declaring that his connection with Russia was only to be referred to the person of the emperor. When the war in 1812 ended in Russia reconquering Poland, he was again by the side of Alexander, whom he accompanied to Paris in 1814, and the Congress of Vienna, in 1815. In 1815 he was appointed Senator-palatine of the kingdom, and in 1817 married the Princess Anna Sapieha. He attended the first Diet, and spoke boldly in favour of the constitution; but all his hopes were disappointed. In 1821, some students of the University of Wilna, of which he was curator, were accused of revolutionary movements, and in spite of his efforts, sixty of them were imprisoned without trial, many of the sons of the first families were drafted as soldiers into the Russian regiments, and others were banished to Siberia and the military colonies, whilst Czartoryski was denounced to Alexander for having "retarded by a hundred years the amalgamation of the Poles with Russia." He thereupon resigned his post. When the Revolution of 1830 broke out, he devoted all his energies to the service of his country. He was appointed President of the Provisional Government, and summoned the Diet to meet on the 18th of December, 1830. On the 30th of January, 1831, he was placed at the head of the national government. After the terrible days of August 15 and 16 he resigned his post, but served as a volunteer in the corps of General Romarino during the last fruit-

less struggles. When all was lost, he emigrated first to England, and then to Paris, where he has since resided, and busied himself for the vindication of the rights of Poland as guaranteed by treaties to which England and France were parties, and for the benefit of his homeless countrymen. He was expressly excluded from the amnesty of 1831, and his estates in Poland were confiscated. During the Polish insurrection of 1846, his Gallician estates were put under sequestration by the Austrian Government, but this was removed in the spring of 1848. In March of that year he issued a proclamation, urging the German representatives to unite with those of France to demand the restoration of Poland. In April, 1848, he enfranchised the peasants upon his estate of Sieniawa, in Galicia, and gave them their possessions in fee. During the war in the East (1853—1856) he endeavoured to unite the cause of Poland with that of Turkey and the Western Powers, but his efforts failed. His age and services caused him to act as the head of the Polish emigration. His speeches at the yearly meetings give a sketch of the unceasing efforts of the Polish nation to maintain its distinct existence. His "Mémoires," which he was known to be revising when death overtook him, will be a valuable addition to his several important works on history and diplomacy.

THE HON. T. C. ONSLOW.

On Sunday, the 7th inst., at Upton House, near Alresford, Hants, aged 82, the Hon. Thomas Cranley Onslow. The deceased gentleman was the second son of the Right Hon. Thomas, second Earl Onslow, by Arabella, daughter of the late Eaton Mainwaring Ellerker, Esq., of Risby Park, co. York, and, consequently, next brother of the present Earl, and heir-presumptive to the earldom and estates. He was born in 1778, and educated at Harrow. He entered the army at an early age, and held a commission for many years in the Scots Fusilier Guards, from which he retired on the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. He was a magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant for Surrey, and was for many years Lieutenant-Colonel of the 2nd Surrey Militia. He married, in 1812, Susannah Elizabeth, daughter and co-heir of the late N. Hillier, Esq., of Stoke Park, near Guildford, Surrey, by whom (who died in 1852) he has left issue. By his death, his eldest son, Mr. George Augustus Cranley Onslow, becomes heir-presumptive to his uncle's title. He was born in 1813, and married, in 1848, Mary Harriet Anne, daughter of the late Lieutenant-General W. B. Loftus, of Kilbride, co. Wicklow.

SIR G. J. THOMAS, BART.

On Saturday, the 13th instant, at White Hall, Chingford, Essex, aged 37, Sir Godfrey John Thomas, Bart., of Wenvoe Castle, co. Glamorgan. He was the second son of the late Rev. Sir John Godfrey Thomas, sixth baronet of Wenvoe (who died in 1841), by his second wife, Elizabeth Anne, eldest daughter of the Rev. John Vignolles, of Cornahir, co. Westmeath, and widow of Lieutenant-Colonel Greg. He was born at Bodiam, near Hastings, Sussex, June 16th, 1824, and succeeded his half-brother, the late Sir Edmund Stephen Thomas, a major in the army, who died unmarried in February, 1852. He married, in 1853, Emily, eldest daughter of William Chambers, Esq., jun., of Llanelly House, Carmarthen-shire. He is succeeded in the title by his son, Godfrey Vignoles, who was born in 1856. The paternal ancestor of this family, according to Sir Bernard Burke, was one Jevan ap Harpwaye, of Tresiment, co. Hereford, who married Catherine, only daughter and heiress of Thomas ap Thomas, of Wenvoe Castle, co. Glamorgan, and thereupon assumed the surname and arms of the family of Thomas. From him was lineally descended John Thomas, Esq., of Wenvoe, who was created a baronet in 1694, with remainder to his brothers and their issue. The third baronet was for some years M.P. for Wiltshire; and the father of the baronet now deceased was Vicar of Worthing and Bodiam, Sussex.

COL. GWYNNE.

On Sunday, the 14th inst., at Clifton, aged 77, Col. Alban Thomas Gwynne, of Monachty, co. Cardigan. He was the only son of the late Rev. A. T. J. Gwynne, of Tyglyn, co. Cardigan, by Martha, daughter of the late Rev. Edward Acton, of Bentworth, near Alton, Hants, and was born in 1783. He was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, and succeeded to the property of Monachty in 1805. He was twice married: first, in 1808, to Marianne, daughter of J. Vevors, Esq., of Yarkhill, co. Hereford; and secondly, in 1840, to Isabella, daughter of J. Brown, Esq., of Edinburgh. He is succeeded by his son by the former marriage, Mr. Alban Lewes Gwynne, now of Monachty, who was born in 1809, and married in 1847 Jane, daughter of Crawshaw Bailey, Esq., M.P., of Aberar, Glamorganshire, formerly high sheriff of cos. Monmouth and Brecon, and brother of the late Sir Joseph Bailey, Bart., M.P., of Glenusk Park, co. Brecon.

S. DOUGLAS, ESQ.

On Friday, the 12th instant, at Putney, Surrey, aged 33, Stair Douglas, Esq. He was the third (but second surviving) son of General Sir James Dawes Douglas, G.C.B., of Clifton, Colonel of the 42nd Foot (who represents a younger branch of the noble Scottish house of Queensberry), by Marianne, youngest daughter of the late William Bullock, Esq. He was born in November, 1827, and at the usual age entered the civil service at the Mauritius, where he was highly esteemed by all who knew him. He married, May 6th, 1858, Janet Mary, daughter of the late John Marshall, Esq., of Headingley Hall, near Leeds, and has left one or two infant children to lament his loss. His elder brother, Mr. Sholto James Douglas, Barrister-at-Law, was appointed Solicitor-General at the Mauritius in 1853. The grandfather of the gentleman just deceased was Major James Sholto Douglas, whose father was uncle of the 6th Marquis; and his aunt is the widow of the 6th Marquis of Queensberry, who died on 6th December, 1856.

MISS BLACKER.

On Saturday, June 29th, at Woodbrook, Ireland, Miss Blacker. She was Letitia, eldest daughter of Captain William Blacker, of the 105th Regiment of Foot, and sister of the late, and aunt of the present, Mr. William Blacker, of Woodbrook, co. Wexford, whose mother was a daughter of the late Lord Carew. The family, represented by Mr. Blacker, of Woodbrook, are a younger branch of the Blackers of Carrick Blackers, co. Armagh. We take the following account of this family from the "County Families":—"Laing, Williams, and other travellers, have called attention to the great antiquity and long continuance in the same name and line of the estate and family of Blacker of Blacker, in the parish of Lom, on the river Otta, in Norway. The lands are held by grants or charters, of which the language and writing have long become obsolete. The present Blacker retains the armour of his ancestors, of a most ancient and remote character, and can show—what is there considered comparatively modern

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—a letter of acknowledgment for his hospitable reception from King Harfagr Mognusen to a predecessor, upwards of five hundred years ago, when that monarch passed a night at Blacker. The Blackers of Carrick-Blacker derive also from a celebrated and powerful Norse Viking, called Blacker, whose figure they have always borne as their cognizance, or coat of arms, and of whom it is related by Sir James Ware and other annalists, that having subjugated considerable portions of the coasts of England and Ireland, he founded a dynasty in the latter country that lasted for several generations. He appears to have retained a hold on England at the same time; and one of the finest remains of what are commonly called Danish encampments is that which still bears the name of Blacker's Hill, in Chilcompton hundred, Somerset. It is in Yorkshire, however, that the name particularly appears in Domesday Book as holding lands before the Conquest; and by the Liber Hibernie, it appears that the family were transferred again to Ireland about three centuries ago, from Poppleton, in the Ainstey of York, and have since diverged into several important families of landed gentry in that country."

W. GAUSSEN, ESQ.

On Tuesday, the 9th inst., at 12, Montague-place, Bedford-square, William Gausson, Esq. He was the second of the three sons of the late Samuel Robert Gausson, Esq., of Brookman's Park, near Hatfield, Herts (who died in 1812), by Elizabeth, daughter of the John Hanbury, Esq., of Kelmash, co. Northampton (a relative of Lord Bateman). He was consequently uncle to Robert William Gausson, Esq., the present owner of Brookman's Park, who was formerly *attaché* at Stockholm, and served the office of high sheriff of Hertfordshire in 1841.

J. MICKLETHWAIT, ESQ.

On Saturday, the 6th inst., aged 65, John Micklethwait, Esq., of Ardsley House, and Thornville, near Barnsley, Yorkshire. He was the second, but eldest surviving son of the late Richard Micklethwait, Esq., of Ardsley House, by his first wife, Elizabeth, daughter of John Pollard, Esq., of New Leith, and was born in November, 1795. He entered the army in 1812, and became captain in the 46th foot in 1825, but retired in the same year, soon after succeeding his elder brother in the family property. He was a magistrate and deputy-lieutenant for his Riding of Yorkshire, and remained to the last on the unattached list of the army. By his wife, Mary Ann, daughter of Miles Atkinson, Esq., of Skipworth Hall, Yorkshire, he had issue a family of eight children, five daughters and three sons. He is succeeded in his estates by his eldest son, Richard, who was born in 1830, and was formerly captain in the West York Rifles. This family, according to Dugdale, have been seated in the neighbourhood of Barnsley since the reign of Edward I.; and a junior branch, now extinct, attained the honours of the Irish peerage as Viscounts Micklethwait of Portarlington. The Micklethwaits have been seated at Ardsley since about the year 1655.

R. ALEXANDER, ESQ.

On Monday, the 15th inst., at Milton Abbott, Devon, aged 90, Robert Alexander, Esq., one of the oldest members of the East-India Civil Service. He was the fourth and youngest son of the late Wm. Alexander, Esq. (who died in 1774), eldest son of Nathaniel Alexander, Esq., whose youngest brother, James, was created Lord Caledon in 1790, and was subsequently raised in the peerage as Viscount Alexander and Earl of Caledon. Mr. Robert Alexander was born in 1770, and entered the Civil Service of the Hon. East-India Company at the usual age. He was for some years a Member of Council in the Madras Presidency, and returned to England on a retiring pension in 1819. Mr. Alexander was twice married, and had issue, two sons, James William and Robert, both in the Bengal Civil Service, and two daughters, the younger of whom, Mary, married, in 1837, the Rev. St. Vincent Love Hammick, Vicar of Milton Abbott, Devon, second son of Sir Stephen Love Hammick, Bart.

LIEUT. FOLLETT.

On Monday, the 15th instant, at Taplow, near Maidenhead, aged 22, Hardinge Giffard Follett, Esq., Lieutenant in the 7th Royal Fusiliers. He was the second son of the late Sir William Webb Follett (many years M.P. for Exeter, and Attorney-General under Sir Robert Peel), by the daughter of the late Sir Hardinge Giffard, some time Chief Justice at Ceylon. He was born in 1838, and obtained his commission in the Army in 1855, and became Lieutenant in 1858.

C. W. BLAKISTON-HOUSTON, ESQ.

On Wednesday, the 3rd instant, at Orangefield, co. Down, Ireland, aged 25, Charles William Blakiston-Houston, Esq. He was the third and youngest son of the late Richard Bayly Blakiston-Houston, Esq., by Mary Isabella, daughter of John Holmes Houston, Esq., of Orangefield and Roddens, co. Down, whose name he assumed. He was born May 11th, 1836. The father of the gentleman so recently deceased was the fifth son of Sir Matthew Blakiston, Bart.; and maternally he was descended from a branch of the Houstons, of Houstoun, co. Renfrew, which went over to Ireland under the Stuarts, and settled in the county of Antrim, about 1690. His eldest brother is the present Mr. John Blakiston-Houston, of Orangefield and Roddens.

MRS. LOWE.

On Tuesday, the 9th instant, Mrs. Lowe, of Court of Hill, Shropshire. The deceased lady was Catherine Elizabeth, daughter of Thomas Baker, Esq., of Ashurst Lodge, Kent, and married, in 1846 (as his second wife), Colonel Arthur Charles Lowe, of Court of Hill, a Magistrate and Deputy Lieutenant for co. Salop, and a Magistrate for co. Worcester, who is a younger brother of the late Very Rev. Thomas Hill Lowe, Dean of Exeter, of whom we gave a memoir in our obituary in THE LONDON REVIEW of Jan. 26th.

WILLS AND BEQUESTS.

Don Joaquim Jose de Campos, late of Rua Fernandez Thomaz, in the city of Oporto, merchant, where he died in April last, had executed his will, according to the form of that country, which was transmitted to England, and translated from the Portuguese into English. The executors nominated are: Senhor Joao Gomes de Oliveira e Silva, Senhor Manoel José Monteiro Brago, and Senhor Cornelio Steur, all residents of Oporto. The property, in England, was sworn under £12,000. The will bears date 14th February, 1861, and was ratified on the 14th of the month following, and proved in London on the 5th of the

present month. This is the will of a Portuguese merchant of considerable property; the testator died a bachelor, and, in the language of the will, "without any heritable heirs." The document is of a very peculiar character, being strictly in accordance with the forms and usages adopted in Portugal in framing testamentary dispositions. The testator was a strict and zealous member of the Catholic communion, and a very large portion of his property is bestowed upon charitable institutions, fraternities, the priesthood, and other like objects. He has left pecuniary bequests to his nephews, nieces, sister-in-law, and other distant relatives, as well as to some of his tradespeople and to his servants, but the bulk of his property is confined to charitable dispositions. These are so numerous that we cannot give them in detail; we, therefore, select some of the most singular: for instance, there is left to fifty indigent modest persons of the city of Oporto a legacy to each; to five female orphans, of the ages of fourteen, a dowry to each, to be drawn for, from amongst the poorest, their names to be written on separate slips of paper and to be deposited in an urn, from which they are to be drawn by a child from the age of three to five years, and the first five slips extracted are to be the possessors of the bequests. Amongst the most prominent legacies to institutions, societies, &c., are the following:—the mendicants, Santa Casa de Misericordia, the city of Oporto administration, the seminaries, and asylum for forsaken children, male and female, and many other charities of a similar nature. There is a direction given with regard to the interment of the testator, which is peculiar to the Romish Church and very frequently practised by its members, it is that of an express mention in his will of being shrouded in his coffin in the garb of the order of the brotherhood to which he belonged, previous to interment, and to be borne to the grave by six of the poorest of that fraternity.

General William Hallett Connolly, R.M., who died on the 20th ult., at his residence, King's-terrace, Southsea, Hants, in his 80th year, executed his will on the 5th of February, 1859, appointing as his executors his relict, together with his four sons, namely, Lieutenant-Colonel Richard George Connolly, R.M., Captain Matthew Connolly, R.N., Captain Edward J. R. Connolly, R.M., and Captain Henry C. L. Connolly, of the 3rd Hants Artillery Volunteers. Probate was granted by the London Court on the 8th instant. This gallant gentleman has disposed of his property to his widow and children. We infer that the relict is otherwise provided for, as the testator has bequeathed to her the furniture, plate, and some other effects, leaving all other of his personal property to his sons and daughters in various proportions. General Connolly was an officer who had seen much active and arduous service, and has been a sharer in many a hard-fought conflict; and it is a singular circumstance that all the male members of his family are devoted to the service of their country, being officers either in the army or navy. Colonel Connolly commenced his career, as an officer in the Royal Marines, in 1795, and passed through the various grades from second lieutenant to the rank of general. It is well known that commissions in the corps of Royal Marines are neither bought or sold, and consequently promotion is exceedingly slow in this branch of our service. General Connolly is an instance of the correctness of this remark, the gallant officer having acquired the rank of general when he had attained the 74th year of his age, and after the lengthened period of sixty years military service.

The Rev. Lawrence Ottley, M.A., canon of the cathedral church of Ripon, rural dean, rector of Richmond, Yorkshire, and chaplain to the Bishop of Ripon, died on the 11th of last month at Welbeck-street, Cavendish-square, having executed his will in September, 1859, which was attested by Thomas P. Teale, of Leeds, and Richard Atkinson, of Richmond. The executors appointed are his relict, together with his brother, Henry Ottley, Esq., of Liverpool, and his brother-in-law, the Ven. Edward Bickersteth, Archdeacon of Buckingham. The personal property was sworn under £6,000. Canon Ottley has bequeathed his entire property, real and personal to his relict, leaving to her one-third thereof absolutely, and the remainder, on her decease, is to devolve equally amongst their children. The furniture, plate, jewellery, and other effects are bestowed on the widow absolutely. The living of Richmond, Yorkshire, was held by Canon Ottley during the period of eleven years, and is in the gift of the Lord Chancellor.

Thetton Richard Anthony O'Reilly, one of the Judges of Her Majesty's Supreme Court, at the island of Jamaica, where he died, on the 22nd of December last, was formerly residing at Lowth, Ireland, executed his will only a few days before his death, bearing date the 17th of the same month, appointing three executors—namely, Edward Lucas, Esq., of Kingston, who alone took the grant of probate in that colony; W. T. Marsh, Esq., of Spanish Town, but who is not acting; and Myles O'Reilly, Esq., of Knock Abbey, Lowth, Ireland, the testator's nephew, who is the general executor, and has administered to the will in this country. This gentleman, who had only held the appointment of one of Her Majesty's Judges of the Supreme Court of Jamaica during the short term of two years, has bequeathed the property, of which he died possessed both in that island and in England, principally to his nephew and executor, Myles O'Reilly, Esq., from which, and other directions contained in the will, we infer that the testator had no children of his own. The nephew takes the entire property subject to the presentation of his religious books to the Vicar-Apostolic James E. Dupeyron, and his wardrobe, &c., to his valet. The will concludes with the direction, or rather request, that his nephew would kindly consider the claims of the poor.

Love Albert Parry, Esq., formerly of Westbourne-place, Pimlico, but late of Colchester, Essex, at which latter residence he died on the 9th of June last, having executed his will in 1859, which was attested by G. F. Hudson, Esq., solicitor, Bucklersbury, and John Blore, Esq., Westbourne-place, and was proved in London, on the 5th instant, by Frederick Pattison, Esq., of Old Broad-street, City, the sole executor. The personal property was sworn under £5,000. Mr. Parry, who died a widower, we presume, was a private gentleman of retired habits. He has left his property, both real and personal,—exclusive of a charitable bequest, which is in favour of the Essex and Colchester Hospital, and some legacies to personal friends and to his servants, all of which are directed to be paid free of legacy duty,—entirely to his executor, Mr. F. Pattison.

Robert Bell, Esq., of Gower-street, Bedford-square, died at his residence, on the 11th of last month, having made his will on the 3rd of December last, which was brought into Court by Messrs. Boys and Tweedie, Solicitors, Ely-place, and probate granted, on the 12th instant, to Mrs. Laura Bell, the relict and sole executrix. The personal property was sworn under £10,000. This gentleman's will is exceedingly brief, being confined to one disposition, which is in favour of his relict, to whom the testator has bequeathed the whole of his property of every description, absolutely. This is independently of what she already enjoys under settlement.

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ADVERTISEMENTS.

CRYSTAL PALACE.—GREAT FOUNTAINS.—The FIFTH DISPLAY this Season of the GREAT FOUNTAINS and entire series of Waterworks will take place on MONDAY, July 22nd, at Half-past Four o'clock. This display will include the Nine Basins of the Upper Series, the Water Temples, the Cascades, and Grand Waterfalls; the Dancing Fountains, and the numerous other groups of the Great Lower Basins, comprising many thousands of jets, and discharging 120,000 gallons of water per minute, the centre jets attaining the altitude of 234 feet.—Open at Nine. Admission, One Shilling; Children under 12, Sixpence; or by Season Tickets.

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YEAR.	FIRE DEPARTMENT.		CAPITAL AND RESERVED FUNDS.			LIFE DEPARTMENT.		Age of Company.
	Amount of Premiums.	Amount of Losses.	Amount of each Year's Dividend.	Capital on which Dividend was paid.	Accumulated Funds.	Amount of Premium.	Amount of Claims.	
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	
1836	9,970 11 7	1,079 4 8	0 0 0	0 0 0	9,418 18 5	881 0 4	0 0 0	1st Year.
1837	11,986 17 2	5,173 0 0	3,458 15 0	66,175 0 0	16,328 8 5	1,754 13 7	600 0 0	2nd "
1838	16,540 13 10	23,582 14 10	3,471 17 6	69,437 10 0	9,312 5 4	2,396 13 0	1,590 0 0	3rd "
1839	19,025 9 0	10,509 12 9	3,471 17 6	69,437 10 0	18,623 3 9	2,345 5 3	497 4 0	4th "
1840	20,697 18 2	1,888 5 6	3,471 17 6	69,437 10 0	38,312 19 6	2,668 18 3	3,900 0 0	5th "
1841	20,682 19 11	10,758 17 3	3,380 12 6	67,612 10 0	51,577 6 3	2,833 8 4	4,000 0 0	6th "
1842	23,805 11 7	46,520 13 8	3,380 12 6	67,612 10 0	28,153 5 9	3,162 15 9	3,699 19 6	7th "
1843	48,246 8 1	44,250 13 10	3,380 12 6	67,612 10 0	38,631 2 4	3,277 11 9	600 0 0	8th "
1844	56,239 5 5	14,050 7 8	11,930 12 6	79,537 10 0	115,000 13 11	3,817 4 5	200 0 0	9th "
1845	*50,193 0 0	4,232 12 6	36,730 17 6	101,992 10 0	159,842 12 1	4,390 17 6	1,064 9 6	10th "
1846	47,763 1 0	24,866 10 7	45,270 10 3	186,092 10 0	175,473 9 11	16,166 7 5	4,700 0 0	11th "
1847	41,402 14 0	19,752 8 10	36,379 1 4	188,047 10 0	181,751 4 10	19,840 11 5	15,388 9 0	12th "
1848	†35,472 18 1	8,169 9 8	33,160 17 6	188,047 10 0	197,727 7 8	21,198 12 7	9,061 19 4	13th "
1849	36,517 15 4	18,637 14 0	24,098 5 4	188,547 10 0	211,798 18 0	23,505 17 5	8,116 0 0	14th "
1850	42,928 7 3	7,415 1 1	24,834 15 0	188,547 10 0	227,153 8 2	25,467 16 1	6,078 1 0	15th "
1851	54,305 17 9	9,276 6 1	34,992 2 11	196,697 10 0	306,126 12 3	27,157 18 8	21,685 10 0	16th "
1852	98,654 14 10	59,091 0 11	35,125 15 3	198,072 10 0	358,153 4 11	50,799 17 11	19,636 2 6	17th "
1853	113,612 4 6	42,846 1 0	35,799 4 8	199,322 10 0	421,578 7 9	53,128 2 8	23,860 3 9	18th "
1854	146,096 15 9	94,178 19 9	38,458 9 10	†168,558 0 0	483,803 2 9	57,113 4 0	19,445 19 3	19th "
1855	186,271 16 11	98,559 9 0	41,880 16 0	170,853 0 0	546,067 15 10	63,909 19 5	27,997 15 0	20th "
1856	222,279 10 6	108,306 15 10	48,314 18 7	175,008 0 0	646,053 8 6	72,781 15 10	28,855 4 0	21st "
1857	289,251 0 4	165,240 7 6	55,895 2 0	188,422 0 0	900,228 3 9	101,928 14 1	46,616 12 11	22nd "
1858	276,058 7 0	190,372 12 7	55,961 6 0	188,702 0 0	967,971 15 0	121,411 10 9	53,660 11 9	23rd "
1859	295,414 8 10	201,885 7 11	56,153 8 0	188,702 0 0	1,025,072 7 4	127,415 14 9	84,748 12 6	24th "
1860	313,725 12 7	225,832 4 7	56,213 8 0	188,902 0 0	1,070,924 2 0	131,721 10 6	76,029 4 10	25th "

* Rates of Premium largely reduced.

† A further reduction of Rates.

‡ Twenty per cent. returned to the Proprietors.

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February, 1861.

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SWINTON BOULT, Secretary to the Company.
JOHN ATKINS, Resident Secretary, London.

SUPPLEMENT TO THE LONDON REVIEW.

No. 55.]

SATURDAY, JULY 20, 1861.

[Vol. III.]

SOCIAL ULCERS.

It is easy for the self-complacent Englishman to praise the British people and nation. We can fancy the optimist painting the picture of our civilization *en couleur de rose*. "Are we not," he might ask, "a pre-eminently moral and religious people? Do we not stand at the very head of the world? Whatever good was in antiquity has reached us. We are rich in all the stored-up wisdom of the past. Our active minds work not only for ourselves, but for the human race. Inheriting much truth and some falsehood from our progenitors, we have endeavoured, faintly at one time, and more strongly at another, to disentangle the truth from the falsehood, to act upon the one, and to reject the other. Our philosophers and sages have studied the laws of nature, and discovered a portion of her secrets. They have made the elements our servants, set the winds, the waves, and the fire to work for us; turned the water-drops into instruments of power, and mastered the obstructions of time and space. British civilization makes the lightning its messenger; fills the earth with artificial beauty, almost rivalling in its uses and significance the natural beauty of which it is an imitation. It prints books, and thereby increases indefinitely the value of speech. It makes the dead ages utter living wisdom to the men of to-day. It leaves the wisdom and the wit of to-day, as soon as it is spoken, as a legacy to all time. It scatters thoughts like seeds upon the highways and byways of the world. It sends ships over all the seas and oceans of the globe. Our mariners discover new islands, and explore the interior of continents hitherto unvisited. Our travellers and missionaries penetrate over deserts and sierras, and leave some gift of Christianity and civilization behind them wherever they tread. No place is too remote or inaccessible for their enterprise, their curiosity, their philanthropy, or their faith. They have an insatiable energy, which is of the utmost value to the world. The Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Scandinavian races have spread themselves over all regions, peopled North America, civilized India, taken possession of Australia, and scattered their name and fame, language and literature, religion and laws, ideas and habits over the fairest portions of the globe. It is no great exaggeration to say that we are a great and noble people; that our spirit rules the world—that our wisdom enters into the composition of the every-day life of half the civilized globe—that our physical as well as moral and intellectual presence is manifest in every climate under the sun—that wherever we conquer we strive to civilize and refine—that our arms, arts, and literature are illustrious among the nations, and that we are not only a rich and a powerful, but a religious, moral, and intelligent people." All this, and much more may be said, all very true in its way, and very fine, but conveying merely the telescopic view of our condition and achievements. If we were to apply the microscope, we might perhaps discover reason to be less boastful. If we were to come down from the mountain-top, and, instead of surveying with such large satisfaction these panoramic views of man, life, and nature, were to walk into the corn-fields and the workshops, into the mines and the factories, into the farm-steadings and the city lanes, and see how the people live, we might learn a little more humility. The social microscope might enlighten us upon the real condition of our people, and show us what share, if any, of these triumphs of civilization has been allotted to or acquired by them, and whether there are not millions in our civilized and Christian country, who, for the matter of benefits gained from our civilization, might not as well have been born in a land of heathenism and barbarism.

As so much has been said and written about the miserable condition of the bulk of the labouring people who congregate together in large towns and cities, let us vary the theme by trying to discover how the people live in smaller communities, where square yards of land are not so enormously valuable as they are in such places as London, Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, and Glasgow, and where the free air of heaven, and the breezes of the wholesome sea, may have ample space to refresh and gladden the landscape, and stream through the dwellings of men. Doubtless the picture to be drawn may be painted in brighter colours than those with which the social reformer can paint the moral and physical peculiarities of the dingy and squalid centres of our trade and industry. The town we fix upon for the purposes of our inquiry is Bridport in Dorsetshire, 164 miles by railway from London, and within two miles of the sea-shore. Perhaps it may afford us a glimpse into the every-day life of the labouring people, which may be found both interesting and instructive, and give us cause either to continue to glorify our civilization, or to lament that our philanthropy talks so much and does so little.

A bird's-eye view of the town of Bridport, and of the lovely landscape amid which it lies embedded, like a nest amid protecting foliage, ought to afford unqualified pleasure to every admirer of natural scenery. Hills of an altitude that would be called mountains by the over-crowded dwellers in Cockayne, crowned with grove and copse, or covered to the very cope with grass and evergreens, arise on the east, west, and north. To the south a flat alluvium, once covered by the sea, stretches two miles in width, and six or seven in length, across which may be seen from the windows that have a southern aspect, the blue waters of the channel. Through this flat meanders the little river Brit, from whence the town takes its name. The river is supposed, by local antiquaries,

to be so called from the Brutus, who is fabled to have first colonized Britain, and to have bestowed upon it the same favour that Amerigo Vespucci bestowed upon the two continents of the new world. The main street of Bridport is clean, wide, spacious, and well-paved. It extends from east to west, about a mile, sloping gently on either side, and contains several excellent shops and private houses. In the centre or crown of the causeway stands a market-house, from whence another large, airy, and picturesque street extends for about half a mile in the direction of the harbour. The whole appearance of the town is tidy and comfortable, and impresses the stranger with a highly favourable idea, both of the worldly comfort and intelligence of the people. And the delicious climate, much more mild and genial than that of London, adds greatly to the charm and beauty of the place. Roses, fuchsias, geraniums, honeysuckles, and vines, flourish luxuriantly, and adorn either the outsides or the insides of the houses in far greater profusion than is commonly seen anywhere in England, except in the Isle of Wight; while the rural lanes that branch out into the open country, and wind their way among the verdurous hills, are embanked with ferns, large and small, of which the practised eye can discover at least seven or eight varieties. Nowhere do the rose, the laurel, the myrtle, and the arbutus, thrive more healthily; and peas, beans, strawberries, and all the early summer vegetables and fruits, come forth three weeks or a month earlier than they do in London.

At the Census of 1851 the population of the sub-district of Bridport, including the three parishes of Bridport, Allington, and Bradpole, all closely contiguous, was 7,792. At the Census of 1861, just concluded, the population was found to be 8,004, of whom 4,385 were females and 3,619 males, being an increase in the decennial period of only 212 and an excess of the female population over the male of no less than 766.

The borough of Bridport returns two members to Parliament, and has done so since the year 1266. In the thirty-seventh of Henry III. it received a royal charter of incorporation, which the provisions of the municipal Reform Act of 1835 superseded and extended. The borough before the later date included only the parish, and covered but ninety-one acres of ground, but at that time its limits were extended over parts of the neighbouring parishes of Allington, Walditch, and Bradpole, and made to include Bridport Harbour, at two miles' distance, where the Brit runs into the sea. It was divided into six wards, and in place of the ancient bailiff and capital burgesses, who, until then, had administered its affairs, it was placed under the government of a mayor, elected annually, of six aldermen holding office for six years, and eighteen town-councillors, of whom four go out of office annually. Bridport is decidedly of liberal politics, and seldom sends a Conservative to Parliament. Its present members support Lord Palmerston.

The population of Bridport gains its principal subsistence by the manufacture of rope, cordage, netting, sail-cloth, and other hempen goods. For centuries before Manchester was heard of Bridport was a flourishing manufacturing town. In the year 1529 King Henry VIII. granted it a charter securing to it the exclusive manufacture of cordage and cables for the royal Navy. The preamble of the act set forth "that time out of mind all the ropes, and cables, and other tackling for the Royal Navy had been made at Bridport." In early times it was proverbial in England to say of a man who was hanged that he "was stabbed with a Bridport dagger!" The "Bridport Directory" for the present year gives the names of four flax and tow spinners and sail-cloth makers, and of nineteen line, twine, and roe-thread manufacturers; but the trade of the place is rapidly declining. Cotton is superseding hemp and flax in the manufacture of nets, and Dundee, with its elaborate machinery and superior organization, is fast gaining the command of the market for cordage as well as for sail-cloth. So palpable has been the falling off that the manufacturers of Bridport, who have, until recently, relied mostly on hand-labour, are erecting machinery as fast as their capital will allow, apprehensive if they do not, that the trade will leave the town altogether, never again to be brought back to it.

The stranger who visits a town with the purpose of inquiring into its social condition, is generally taken to the schools, the chapels and churches, the charitable institutions, the workhouse, and the great factories, where he sees the place under its most favourable aspects. In these respects Bridport is all that it ought to be. The infant and industrial day-schools for both sexes are well supported and attended. The principal inhabitants are fully alive to the importance of education, and have more difficulty in conquering the apathy and ignorance of the parents, than in providing the means of instruction for the young. The religious sects are all well represented in point of numbers; and on a fine Sunday afternoon it is pleasant to see how well-dressed are the people that swarm out of all the churches and chapels; and curious, too, to note how largely the female part of the population seems to preponderate over the male,—a fact proved by the last Census, as already cited, and which may account for some of the social peculiarities of the place, to which we shall draw the requisite attention in the progress of our investigation.

That the poor are well cared for in Bridport parish will be evident enough to any one who shall visit the workhouse or Union, as we did, and note the cleanliness, ventilation, order, and sobriety which are the appliances and aids of government in that establishment. On this point it is unnecessary to dwell. All that need be said of the religious and educational development



of Bridport is highly in its favour. Religion flourishes, education is properly attended to, and when the poor man or woman or destitute child comes upon the parish, he, she, and it are carefully attended to, and considered to be human beings with immortal souls, and not brutes that perish.

There are Bible Societies, Tract Societies, branches of Church-Building Societies, Missions for the Propagation of the Gospel, and all the machinery of sect and religion, for the development and extension of Christianity among the heathen. There are Temperance Societies, Anti-Slavery Societies, Athenæums, lecture rooms, reading rooms, and Penny Banks to encourage and facilitate thrift among the humbler classes. All is right and bright. Everything is done that can be done. The town is morally as well as physically clean and comfortable. And if there be poverty and failing trade, these are the accidents to which all communities are liable, and for which no one is to be blamed.

But wait a little. We must look a little deeper into things. We must see the people at home. We must apply the social microscope. The main streets are all very well, but we must go into the back alleys if we wish to study the real life of the ants in this human ant-hill. Beauty is only skin-deep. We must look under the skin, and see what we shall see.

There is one thing, however, that the stranger at Bridport needs no microscope to investigate. The excess of the female over the male population is palpable to the most careless eye; but the number of beer-shops, public-houses, inns, taverns, and hotels, is something still more flagrantly conspicuous. In South-street—broad, open, spacious, and less than half a mile in length—we count between the parish church and the market-place, a distance of about five hundred paces of an ordinary walker, eleven such houses for the sale of beer, wines, and spirits. In the whole street there are eighteen of them. In the High Street they appear to be still more numerous; and, turning to the pages of the "Directory" for further information, we find that in this little town, within the limits of the original ninety acres of the parish, there are no fewer than thirty inns and taverns, and thirty-two beer-shops and public-houses, or sixty-two places altogether for the sale of intoxicating drinks. There are, it appears, also twenty-four bakers and confectioners; but at least half of the bakers are beersellers also. Only one halfpenny worth of bread to this intolerable quantity of sack! as Shakspeare has it. The town has but four butchers; but as the market-place contains stalls for several butchers from the adjoining villages, there is not much to be made of the paucity of the mutton and beef sellers, as compared with the sellers of beer, wine, gin, and cyder. Nevertheless, as there are, in addition to the sixty-two retail dealers in alcohol, three wholesale wine and spirit merchants, it seems as if Bridport were more than adequately supplied in this respect, and that there may be social characteristics on this score which require investigation and explanation. We shall get information about it hereafter. In the meantime, under trustworthy guidance, we leave the highways, and travel into the byways, and forsaking the broad streets thread our way through narrow lanes and alleys, and, turning our backs on the purloins of the well-to-do tradesmen, walk into the houses of the poor.

And here we make the first discovery. Bridport is not supplied with water. There are hills all around, and three little rivers, that, united in the Brit, pour into the sea a vast volume of clear water every hour. But Bridport gets all its water from pumps and wells; and the poor women who work at the net, shoe-thread, rope, and cordage business—when they are fortunate enough to get any work to do—have the additional labour thrust upon them of providing water. All the water necessary for the cleanliness of the house and the person, as well as for the purposes of the kitchen, must be sought out of doors. In little squares, or blocks of houses, in the back alleys and courts, where the people are as thick as maggots in a cheese, one pump or well supplies ten, or as many as fifteen or twenty families; and if the mother be engaged at spinning or other work, the duty of carrying the water devolves upon some poor little maiden of nine or ten years old, who has to fill and carry home the can or pitcher several times a day. In some instances this water, poisoned by the percolations from the contiguous privies or cesspools, is utterly unfit to drink, or even to wash the face with; and the poor child or the mother has to tramp to a well that may be at a distance of three or four hundred yards from the house, to obtain a draught that, under the circumstances, must be almost as precious as in the deserts of Arabia.

Nor is this the only evil that afflicts the homes of the poor. The people are crowded together like pigs, rabbits, or mice, and with about as much regard to ordinary decency as is found among monkeys. Among the dens we visited was one called *Cottage-place*, comprising eleven tenements or houses, closed at the end by a dead wall, preventing the free circulation of the air, and containing a population of seventy men, women, and children. For all these poor people there was but one privy—right at the end—which no one could enter or quit without being seen by the whole colony. There was but one dust-bin or ash-pit, for the convenience of all; and there having been a very large take of an inferior kind of mackerel, called the "Long nose," on the day of our visit—the fish selling in the streets at four a penny—the place smelt abominably, with an odour of fish-entrails predominating palpably above all the other stinks of the place. There was but one pump, and a poor woman who was working at its handle declared, in answer to a question, "that it was filthy—not fit for a pig to drink." "The ooze of the privy gets into it and poisons it," said the friend who accompanied us; and the woman confirmed the truth of the statement by the result of her experience. The rent of these tenements was from one shilling and sixpence to two shillings and twopence per week; and few of them contained more than one sleeping-room for the whole family.

In a place called *Dublin-passage*, we found six small houses inhabited by thirty-five persons. The rent of each was two shillings and twopence per week. There was one filthy privy—or cesspool; one ash-pit, and one pump, for the common use of all the in-dwellers.

In *Combe's-alley* we found fourteen houses, with seventy odd inhabitants, one privy, and one pump of bad water.

In *North Allington*, a row of nine houses were provided with one privy, but with no water at all. A lean, sallow, melancholy tailor, who said he paid six pounds a-year for rent, informed us that he had to send his wife or his little girl to a well a hundred yards distant for every drop of water they required; but the water he said was good—"the cesspool did not ooze into it."

In *Diment's Barton* ("barton" is a local word for an area or inclosure), we found an assemblage of twenty-three families, making more than one hundred

people, for whom there were two privies and one pump. An old woman, when asked, said the water was very good. This person followed us through the court, and loudly and in no complimentary terms expressed her surprise that we should come there prying into other people's affairs. On our stopping before the ash-pit, that stank abominably of the entrails of long-nose mackerel, she declared that the ash-pit was regularly cleaned out; and that it was ridiculous to suppose that any unhealthiness could result from the smells. On inquiry why she was so jealous a conservative of abuse, we learned that although she dwelt in the court, she was not a mere lodger like the rest, but the proprietor of two or three of the tenements. Doubtless she feared that a water-rate might in some way or other be the result of our visit.

In *Long's Court* we found, for twenty-eight families, two privies and one pump, of which the water was declared to "stink."

In *Ellen's Row* there were provided two pumps of bad water, and two privies for seventy people.

In *Seymour's Passage*, containing fifteen houses and eighty inhabitants, there was one pump, and one privy without a door; and through the whole length of the horrible place an open drain, through which the fluids from the cesspool slowly percolated, diffusing a "loud" smell.

There are scores of other places in the town as bad as these. And what makes the matter worse is the fact, that almost every one of them are what are called "spinning ways," or rope walks, in which the women, when they can procure work, walk backwards and forwards spinning their tow, passing the privy, with its door often open and some one inside, a hundred or it may be two hundred times a day, inhaling the contaminated atmosphere, and catching perhaps a moral as well as physical contagion. Fearful stories were told us of the state of demoralization and degradation to which fathers, daughters, brothers, sisters, and even mothers have fallen; but the details are such that we cannot publish them. But we have the facts, and will willingly furnish information to any who desire particulars; or the medical men of the town could tell them fearful secrets if they dared.

A printed placard placed in our hands, with the heading of "Startling Facts," which had been put into circulation some months previously, brought some of the circumstances to the notice of the townspeople. It stated, on the authority of the Registrar-General's Annual Reports, that "the illegitimate births in the Bridport Sub-district, from 1851 to 1858 inclusive, were in the proportion of about 1 to every 8½ legitimate ones, or that 100 illegitimate children were born to every 832 legitimate ones. This gives nearly twice as many illegitimate children in the Sub-district as in the county of Dorset, where, from 1845 to 1857, they appear, from the same authority, to have been as 1 to 15, or 100 to every 1,500, and rather more than in most of the towns of about the same size in Norfolk, which was the most demoralized county in this regard in England, the illegitimate children in that county being as 1 to 10½, or 100 to 1,050.

"In East-street, Bridport, there is a passage and a spinning-way, in which are 12 houses containing 68 inhabitants, and frequented by about 12 more spinners; yet there is only one privy on the premises. In West-street there is another passage, in which are 11 houses, containing about 70 inhabitants; yet there is only one privy on these premises for men and women, boys and girls. These are but specimens of numerous instances of a like kind that are common in the town."

"Have such vile, such worse than beastly, social arrangements," continued the placard, "no connection with the debauchery of the community, and is it not more than time that a Local Government Board, or the Lords of Her Majesty's Council, should put a stop to these indecencies and abominations, destructive alike to the health and the morals of the community?"

With such a woful want of sanitary appliances, and of the most common requirements of a state of civilization, it is to be expected that in Bridport, so lovely to outward view, so foul within, the rate of mortality is above the average. The facts on this branch of the subject are embodied in the following petition to the Mayor and Corporation, which was drawn up and numerously signed in March, 1859:—

"The Petition of the undersigned Inhabitants of the Borough of Bridport to the Worshipful the Mayor, the Aldermen, and the Common Councilmen of the said Borough of Bridport, in Council assembled,

"Sheweth,—That your petitioners are deeply concerned at the sanitary condition of the town, as indicated by the fearful mortality prevailing among its inhabitants.

"That whereas the average mortality in all England is only 22 deaths per 1,000 inhabitants, and in the most unhealthy districts it is only 27 deaths per 1,000 inhabitants, the mortality in the Superintendent Registrar's sub-district of Bridport (which embraces the parishes of Bridport, Allington, and Bradpole, and which in 1851 contained a population of 7,792) has gradually increased, during the past fourteen years, till it has equalled that in the worst districts and the worst cities in England; as is proved by the following facts, obtained from the Registrar's records. The average number of deaths in the district for

The 7 years from 1845 to 1851 inclusive was 25.5 per 1,000 per annum.			
7	"	1852 to 1858	" 26.5 per 1,000 "
4	"	1855 to 1858	" 28.6 per 1,000 "
and during the year 1858 it reached			33.7 per 1,000 "

"That reckoning our proper average at the average for all England, viz., 22 per 1,000, the foregoing numbers show that,

From 1845 to 1851 we lost by deaths annually 27 persons more than our legitimate average.			
1852 to 1858	"	36	" "
1855 to 1858	"	53	" "
and in 1858	"	93	" "

or, in other words, that during the last fourteen years we have lost 441 inhabitants, above our legitimate average, by unnatural deaths.

"That this high rate of mortality represents not only the number of preventable, and therefore unnatural deaths, occurring in our midst every year, and the direct pecuniary loss which accrues to the community in its diminished power of labour, and in the premature widowhood and orphanage of not a few of its members; but that it also indicates an amount of sickness and suffering, of strength diminished and mind impaired, which it is fearful to contemplate—evils which fall chiefly on the poor, and which entail on them a most disproportionate share both of suffering and expense: the most carefully compiled statistics by the Registrar-General, and by the medical officers of the army, the metropolitan police, the Custom-house, Post-office, and the public hospitals, proving that for every death there are, at the very least, forty cases of sickness which average ten days' duration.

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"That this would give us in our Registrar's district,—

From 1845 to 1851 annually	1,080	cases of sickness	over our legitimate average.
1852 to 1853	"	1,440	"
1855 to 1856	"	2,120	"
And in 1858	"	3,720	"

"That, supposing it cost no more than ninepence per day to nurse, diet, and doctor each of these invalids, their illness involved a cost to the community of Bridport, last year, of £1,390; besides the loss of labour resulting from the incapacity of, say, 1,000, as representing the able-bodied men, women, and youths out of the 3,720 invalids, whose lost wages of, say, one and sixpence per day, would be worth £750 more. This, added to the £1,390 for nursing, dieting, and doctoring, would give us a cost of £2,140 for preventible disease last year.

"That whilst your petitioners doubt whether any sanitary appliances could have prevented the appearance of those epidemic diseases with which, for several seasons, the town has been visited, they are convinced that our bad sanitary condition had so enfeebled the vital powers of the inhabitants, as greatly to have diminished their ability to withstand those epidemics."

The publication of this placard led to a fierce controversy in the town. The facts were either denied altogether, or said to be so "cooked" as to be unreliable; but the alarm created was so great, that a committee, composed of the mayor and five other gentlemen, was appointed by the town council, to consider what means could be adopted to provide, if possible, a remedy for the evils complained of. After the prosecution of an inquiry that lasted nearly two months, the committee reported, under date of the 24th of May, that the statistical statements in the memorial were more unfavourable than the facts warranted, and that undue apprehension had been excited in the minds of the inhabitants. They admitted, however, the main fact, that not only was the mortality in the Bridport district larger than the average mortality of the county of Dorset, but also of that of the whole of England, but stated that such excess arose entirely among the juvenile population under fifteen years of age. They furthermore stated their opinion that these deaths among the young were attributable to five separate causes, acting simultaneously:—the avocation of the mothers engaged in the spinning ways and in other branches of manufacture, which compelled them to neglect their infants and young children; the want of cleanliness in the persons and habits of the people; the overcrowded state of their dwellings; the impurities of the atmosphere arising from imperfect private drainage; and lastly, the non-cleansing, at short intervals, of the privies and cesspools attached to their habitations.

This was an ample confession that the memorialists had but performed a duty to the public in sounding the alarm. Nor was this all. The committee furthermore declared their opinion that there was a larger general mortality among the adult population than the peculiarly healthy and agreeable situation of the town would warrant, and came to the conclusion, which must have been obvious and palpable to every man of common sense, without the aid of a committee, that no natural advantages of site or position, or any periodical inspection of the dwellings of the poor, or emptying of their dust-bins and cesspools, could compensate for the want of water. The Committee reported that water was absolutely essential; that without it any alteration in the existing arrangement of drainage would involve an expenditure of money productive of no beneficial result; and recommended that a supply should be obtained from an elevation sufficient to flush all the main sewers of the town; and in addition to be of such quality, and in such quantity, as to provide wholesome drinking water "to such families as would, at a reasonable rate, be induced to avail themselves of the accommodation." After setting forth the various springs and streams in the neighbourhood from whence such supplies were obtainable, they ended by declaring their preference for a stream passing the village of Loders, at an elevation of ninety feet above the railway terminus; and at a distance of three miles from Bridport.

Furthermore, the committee, being of opinion that nothing effective could be done without adopting the provisions of what is called "The Local Government Act," recommended the town council to bring itself under the operation of that enactment. This was accordingly done. A Local Board of Health was elected; and, in October, 1860, a surveyor and an inspector of nuisances were appointed. This board has powers to construct drains, to introduce a water supply, to compel the emptying of cesspools and the removal of nuisances, and to rate the inhabitants for these purposes. To judge from the debates of the members, as reported in the *Bridport Advertiser*—a weekly penny paper in the sixth or seventh year of its existence—there does not seem much reason to believe that Bridport is likely to be blessed with an adequate supply of water, unless the Board of Health that sits in London shall over-ride the dilatoriness of the board of Bridport. An influential member—if we may assume his influence by the frequency of his name in the debates—said, in October, 1860, when the water question was brought forward, immediately after the election of an inspector of nuisances, that the health of the town was never better; that he did not see the necessity of burthening the inhabitants with a water-rate for many years to come; and, finally, that he did not see that any sanitary alterations were required. This gentleman is a brewer. Possibly he may be of opinion that people should drink ale only, and that water is a superfluity that poor people may very well dispense with!

We do not wish to wrong the brewers, the beer-shop keepers, the inn-keepers, and all the other traders who live by the sale of intoxicating drinks in this unhappy little town; but we suspect they know well enough that the introduction of an abundant water supply—not alone of water fit to wash in, but to cook with, make tea of, or to drink, would very much diminish the sale of their commodities, and that they are in consequence not very zealous in the cause of sanitary reform. But it is not only the want of water, but the horrible prevalence of foul miasma from cesspools and privies in the spinning-ways, where the women work, which compels the poor people to have recourse to stimulants. "I feel such a sinking over my work," said a woman in a spinning-way, at one end of which was a privy, and in the middle a reeking ash-pit, filled with decaying animal and vegetable matter, "that I am obliged to drink. A glass of gin or beer revives me; I should faint if I did not get it."

On the bright June day when we traversed the streets of the town, we learned that the beer-shops and public-houses were greatly suffering from the depression of trade. The women had scarcely any work to do—not one spinning-way in ten was occupied; and one woman in a foul alley informed

us that she had not had a day's work for seventeen weeks, but that she was not much worse off in consequence. "How can that be?" we inquired. "Because when I and my daughters had work, we kept the family, and my husband wouldn't do a day's job in a week. Now he is obliged to work, and must bring his money home, instead of spending it in the public-house, or we should all starve together."

It is not to the credit of the working men of Bridport that this woman's complaint was but the expression of a very common grievance. When the women can get full employment, many of the men will not work above three days in the week; and spend their earnings in the public-houses. But the trade is now so bad for the women, that the cowardly men are compelled to do their duty to themselves and families, and the women have time to attend to their young children.

In conclusion, may we not say with truth that the social microscope, as applied to this apparently clean and pleasant little town, has revealed some hideous facts? Are we not justified in asking religious, philanthropic, and benevolent persons who subscribe large funds to convert savages to Christianity, and to introduce the blessings of civilization to the remotest corners of the globe, whether they might not find more available scope at home for the energies of their charity? And, more than this, do not the kind-hearted and Christian people who build chapels and churches, establish schools, distribute Bibles and tracts, found penny banks, and organize temperance societies, waste their resources if they attempt to inculcate the doctrines of morality and religion into the minds of a people whose bodies are so barbarously neglected? It may be possible, but it is difficult, for morality and religion to make much way among a population that live in habitual filth of person, that dread to drink water lest it should produce fever or diarrhoea, that breathe the reeking atmosphere of open privies and cesspools, that know as little of the decencies of life as the brutes that perish, that are crowded in sleeping apartments, the married and the single, the old and the young, fathers, and mothers, and grown-up children, and travelling strangers—all huddled together in human pig-styes. In short, does not sanitary reform lie at the very root of all moral improvement and religious elevation? And is it possible for any population to be virtuous that is exposed to such physical contamination and injury as the poor of Bridport?

Reviews of Books.

NARRATIVE OF THE CIRCUMNAVIGATION OF THE GLOBE.*

VOYAGES have been undertaken for a variety of reasons. Those of ancient times, with the exception of that remarkable one mentioned by Herodotus, which the Egyptians sent round Africa, had for their sole object the extension of commerce, and the enriching of their promoters by the importation of foreign treasures, whether gold from Ophir, pearls and tin from Britain, or apes and peacocks from Tarshish. Those which were the firstfruits of the invention of Gioja, the earliest which can properly be called voyages of discovery, were prompted by the two-fold desire of aggrandising the sovereigns whose subjects the voyagers were, by the addition of new countries to their dominions, and of spreading the true religion among the benighted people of those barbarous regions. The first enterprises of the kind undertaken by ourselves were prompted mainly by a spirit of rivalry, on which the more profit-seeking motives which had actuated the mariners in the service of Spain and Portugal were soon engrafted. The most celebrated of them, the expedition which was led by Anson a hundred and twenty years ago, was originally planned avowedly as a measure of direct hostility to Spain, whose more distant settlements our Admiralty conceived it would be easy to wrest from her. In the present age, when no new countries remain to be discovered, and when nations have become too wise for any to expect to be able to monopolise the commerce of any country, a fresh motive, the promotion of science, has, in many instances, taken the place of those of which the former influence was on the wane. And the observation of the stars in the Southern Hemisphere, an improved adjustment of nautical instruments, or a view of an eclipse, have been objects sufficient in our own days to stimulate expeditions, which three centuries ago would have been blessed by the Pope, and rewarded by the promise of half a continent.

The voyage of which we here have an account, differs from all those to which we have alluded. It had in view, to a certain extent, the acquisition and extension of scientific knowledge, but it was, in a greater degree still, a kind of field-day to improve the experience and further the development of the Austrian navy. Austria has no commerce which requires to be carried on by sea, no colonies, and only one harbour. Under these circumstances, it seems to have occurred to the Archduke Ferdinand, the head of that branch of the imperial service, that the knowledge of maritime affairs possessed by the naval officers of his country was, as might have been expected, little better than theoretical; and it was chiefly with a view to add to that knowledge a practical acquaintance with seamanship, that he suggested this expedition to the Emperor. The opening of channels for Austrian commerce, and the carrying out various scientific researches, were subsidiary objects; and every opportunity was to be taken of collecting botanical, geological, and zoological specimens, with which to enrich those magnificent museums, which are among the chief ornaments of Vienna, and which, in some branches, yield to no collection in Europe. With reference to these scientific objects, instructions for the officers in command were drawn up with especial care by Humboldt, who enriched them with many interesting reminiscences of his own experience as a traveller. And the historian of the expedition, Dr. Karl Scherzer, records, with graceful acknowledgment, the circumstance that many of the most eminent of our own men of science, such as Sir R. Murchison, to whom in its English dress his volume is dedicated, Sir Charles Lyell, Admiral Fitzroy, and others, evinced an interest in its success but little inferior to that felt by the great German philosopher.

The sincerity with which the author proclaims his obligations to our eminent countrymen, is attested by the singular fact of his publishing his narrative in our own as well as in his native language; while our national pride may well find a further gratification in that which he alleges as his principal reason for so doing, namely, that the English tongue is now understood by the majority of the natives of the earth, that it has become "the medium of intercourse among almost all seafaring nations," in consequence, partly, of "the benign influence of our liberal institutions," and partly of "the civilizing and elevating energies of our people."

* Narrative of the Circumnavigation of the Globe by the Austrian Frigate *Novara*. Saunders, Otley, & Co. 1861.

The present volume contains an account of only about half the entire voyage; and omits all mention of the purely scientific results, a record of which is to be published separately; limiting its aim to an attempt to place before the readers a general outline of the countries and races visited during the cruise. In our brief review we will accompany the voyagers across the Atlantic to South America and back again by the Cape of Good Hope to Madras; occasionally comparing the impressions derived by these inexperienced seamen and travellers with those made a few years ago on an accomplished countryman of our own, Mr. Elwes, who made a nearly similar voyage, chiefly with the object of procuring sketches for his portfolio, and who gave the public an account of his travels in a singularly lively volume, copiously enriched with the works of his own pencil; and by the seemingly unconscious revelations which it makes of the cheerful frank energy of the author, presenting a very favourable, and we hope and believe a very faithful, view of the character of an English gentleman. ("A Sketcher's Tour Round the World.")

It was on the 30th of April, 1837, that the *Novara*, accompanied by the corvette *Caroline*, and towed out of harbour by the *Santa Lucia* steamer (the three vessels forming no inconsiderable portion of the Austrian navy), set sail from Trieste, and wended her way down the Adriatic. That celebrated sea they found less unquiet than the character given of it by Horace would have warranted them in expecting. But the surprise was a pleasant one; for they had scarcely got beyond its limits, when they must have begun to wish that Bohemia was still, as in the time of Polixenes, a maritime district, that so an earlier and more extended experience of sea-faring life might have made them proof against its inconveniences. As it was, a fresh breeze off Cape Spartivento filled the novices with alarm, and made even the older sailors horribly sea-sick. They began to doubt whether man was not "a creature made for *terra firma* rather than for the watery element. But this excellent idea came too late; mankind are obliged to submit to existing circumstances"—*superanda omnis Fortuna ferendo est*—"and this thought alone held out some hope that a longer stay on board would prove the best cure for the evil."

Their voyage, however, was prosperous. Charybdis had exchanged her fearful sea wolves for harmless dolphins, which sported in the waves as they passed. A fair wind bore them gently towards the straits; but even before they reached those gates of the Mediterranean, they began to cast a longing lingering look behind; and already, at the dance, which generally wound up the evening, the music of the monferrina filled the sentimental German with tender recollections of his distant home—

"There is an air which often among rocks
Of his own much-lov'd land at evening hour
Is heard, when shepherds homeward pipe their flocks,
Whose every note hath pow'r to fill his mind
With tenderest thoughts; to bring around his knees
The rosy children whom he left behind,
And fill each little angel eye
With speaking tears, to ask him why
He wanders from his hut for scenes like these;"

till the boatswain's whistle dispelled his illusions, and "the yet dance-stricken sailor suddenly, as if awakening from a sweet reverie, found himself once more standing on the deck of the *Novara*."

They were hospitably received by our countrymen at Gibraltar, and, being fortunate enough to be there on the Queen's birthday, they got some idea, from the salutes which were vomited forth from every crevice and embrasure, of the defensive resources of that impregnable fortress; but Gibraltar has been too frequently and too fully described to make it worth while to linger there with our voyagers.

Their next point was Madeira, where they, as our English traveller had been, were especially struck with the gardenlike beauty of the country around Funchal. They spent but ten days in the island; but in that short time they found leisure to collect a great deal of information about its past history and its present condition and prospects; and to make reflections which are applicable to other countries besides Madeira, and which furnish an additional proof how greatly the grasping spirit of the Romish Church has alienated from it the judgment of the more thinking portion of those who still continue its adherents. Our author points out, as forcibly as a Protestant could, the injurious effect upon the agriculture of the island produced by the mistaken piety of former generations, who, in order to have masses said for the repose of their souls, encumbered their lands with such charges in favour of the Church, that only a small portion of their value was left for their heirs. Modern laws have in vain endeavoured to mitigate the evil, which still presses, like an incubus, on four-fifths of the estates of the island.

With equal judgment he condemns, as fatal to the improvement of agriculture, the system of small holdings, which is carried on in Madeira to an extent unparalleled, we imagine, in the world: the farms in the more fertile parts of the island rarely exceeding an acre in extent, and sometimes even falling short of an eighth of that size. The whole island is not twice the size of the Isle of Wight, yet the Comte de Carvalho, to whom one third of it belongs, has upwards of eight thousand tenants. It is easy to see that such a state of things—which, in fact, makes the largest farmer only a day-labourer—is fatal to any liberal or enlightened system of cultivation. And it is equally plain that, in countries nearer to ourselves, and by the prosperity of which we are more immediately affected, the gradual subdivision of estates, produced by the abolition of the law of primogeniture, must inevitably in time produce a similar result.

At the present moment it is not uninteresting to remark that, in his observations on the soil and climate of Madeira, Dr. Scherzer pronounces both to be eminently favourable for the production of cotton. But we are sorry to see that he entertains but a faint expectation that the vineyards will ever regain their former celebrity, since he attributes their decay, in a great measure, to permanent causes; among which the increasing cultivation of the sugar-cane holds a prominent place, since that plant requires irrigation, which causes the roots of the vine to rot in the ground.

One of the objects to which the attention of the officers of the *Novara* had been directed by the projectors of the expedition was the investigation of the depth of the Middle Ocean; and with this object the vessel was provided with a very ingenious apparatus, consisting of a long line, at the end of which was a tube running through a thirty pound shot; on touching the bottom the shot became detached from the tube, which then, by means of a self-expanding funnel at its end, grasped and brought to the surface a portion of the soil which it had reached. The experiments of our voyagers failed from the fact of their not having provided themselves with a sufficient length of line (even what they had procured at Gibraltar), but it was remarkable that the lower their sounding-line went the greater was the density of the water which it encountered; since its descent for the first 2,000 fathoms only occupied the same time that was taken up by its passage from 2,000 to 3,000, while, again, its further descent to 4,050 took very nearly as much as had been required for all the former length together. They calculated, however, that this increased slowness might, perhaps,

be owing in some degree to the increased force of some under-current, which might very possibly prevent their line from descending in an entirely perpendicular direction.

Our voyagers crossed the line, and were visited by Neptune with all the pomp usual on the occasion, which was rendered more striking by the fact that this was the first Austrian vessel that had ever penetrated the southern latitudes. His godship acknowledged the importance of the event by an appearance of more than usual majesty, arriving in a car drawn by six tritons, and vanishing, as so spiritual a deity should, in a blaze of blue fire, though he presently showed his substantial nature by the shaving he administered to the sailors, and equally by the wine he exacted (the German sailor is ignorant of grog) as a ransom from the officers.

Before they reached the land they obtained an insight, fortunately for them from the experience of others, into the character of a cyclone; the most remarkable circumstance being that, according to their account, the course of this kind of storm invariably takes a direction contrary to that of the sun; and, secondly, that a cyclone is never encountered on the equator, and never crosses the line.

They themselves had a favourable passage across the Atlantic, and reached Rio, without the slightest mishap, at the beginning of August. To the natural beauties of the scenery around Rio (of which, however, the proper name is San Sebastian) they agree with Mr. Elwes in doing ample justice; but it shows the difference between the English and the German temperament, that Dr. Scherzer makes the worst of everything, while Mr. Elwes makes the best; the evils of which the former makes the greatest complaint being also just those to which we should have expected one accustomed to German towns to be especially callous—the insufficient drainage, and consequent intolerable smells. They marvelled at the Sugarloaf Rock, at the entrance of the harbour, as much as Mr. Elwes; but they had no one among their crew inclined to follow the example of the English sailor, who scaled it, and planted the Union Jack on the summit, earning his subsequent pardon from the Brazilian authorities by making a second ascent to remove it, a feat which no one in Rio was sufficiently skilful or hardy to attempt—"Sketcher's Journal," p. 18).

Dr. Scherzer scarcely agrees with Mr. Elwes, when he affirms that the slave-trade has now wholly ceased in Brazil (again, perhaps, the difference between their statements may be explained by a reference to the natural habits of the travellers, the German looking at the theory, the Englishman at the fact), while the good which he believes that he saw he frankly attributes wholly to the exertions of our Government, who originally made the abolition of that nefarious traffic a primary condition of our recognition of the new empire of Brazil. It must be admitted, however, that the Brazilian Government is anxious to abolish it, and is taking the most effectual means to that end by vigorous efforts to promote free immigration from every country in Europe. These efforts, however, if Dr. Scherzer's anticipations should be fulfilled, will prove, like those of Virgil's bees, not for their own benefit. For those of his own countrymen who emigrate to the United States, the best hope which he can form is that their industry and capacity, by "mingling with the keen spirit of enterprise and restless energy of the Anglo-Saxon race, may gradually assimilate with it;" but for those who settle on the South American continent, he foresees a brighter future; predicting that they will gradually gain the superiority over the more indolent Latin race, and "permanently conquer for German industry and German commerce one of the fairest countries on the globe, with the weapons of peace, the spade and plough"—(P. 173).

One institution at Rio had an origin so singular as to deserve especial mention. Just twenty years ago, Don José Pereira, Minister of the Interior, perceived the necessity that existed for a lunatic asylum in the city; but the need of such an establishment was more evident than the way in which the sums requisite for its erection and maintenance were to be procured. In this difficulty it luckily occurred to the projector that there were more madmen in Brazil than would seek admittance as patients. And acting on this idea, he put up for sale "all grades of the various Brazilian orders, as well as the titles of baron, count, and marquis;" and speedily raised a sum sufficient for his object. Nothing could certainly be more appropriate than to make those who were insane enough to give solid money for titles utterly valueless when so acquired, contribute to the cure of other lunatics whose madness might take a less conventional form; and on the whole Don Pereira's practice may probably be looked on as one of the most successful instances of homeopathy on record.

Our travellers shunned Cape Horn for a time, and turned back eastward to the Cape of Good Hope, which, however, in their eyes, seemed better to deserve its earlier name of the Cape of Storms, since they encountered what seemed to such inexperienced mariners a most formidable gale, though a British sailor would have seen little more in it than an ordinary breeze. But their belief of the presence of imminent danger did not dismay them, and they took advantage of the swell to calculate the extreme height of the waves; and it is creditable to their nerves that, while the height attained by the waves in a storm has been often estimated as reaching to sixty or seventy feet, their reckonings led them to believe that it scarcely ever exceeds forty or forty-five. To the "voluptuous loveliness which reigns during spring and summer" around the Cape they did full justice, and were equally alive to the general comfort which pervaded all the establishments, both public and private, and to the hospitality which they received from the British authorities, who zealously forwarded their desire of visiting all the most remarkable spots within their reach, and enriched their collections with numberless curiosities. At the present moment, when the reforms proposed by the Emperor of Austria are exciting such general interest, and seem not unlikely to have (according to the reception with which they meet) an important influence on the tranquillity of Europe, it is not unimportant to observe such indications of political feeling as are afforded by the remarks of Dr. Scherzer, when he traces no small portion of the prosperity of the Cape to the free political institutions which it has received from Great Britain.

From the Cape they proceeded almost due east, touching at the small islands of Amsterdam and St. Paul, which Humboldt had unwillingly abandoned the idea of their visiting. They are merely a small fishing station, and their little value may be judged of from the fact, that at the Cape the Austrian officers were informed that the islands were British, as being an appendage of the Mauritius, while in fact the few inhabitants proved to be French, who looked on themselves as subjects of the Emperor Louis Napoleon, and on the islands as under the authority of the isle of Bourbon. In both islands our travellers found traces of an extinct volcano; and in St. Paul some hot springs, in such singular proximity to their cold pools, that a person might, without moving, catch fish in the cold water, and drop them into the adjoining hot water, where they would be "boiled fit for eating in a few minutes" (p. 281). Lord Macartney, who visited these islands on his voyage, had already recorded the same curious fact. They remained for nearly three weeks at St. Paul, making various scientific observations, for which its position, so far from any extensive continent, peculiarly fitted it, and collecting such botanical specimens as could be afforded by an island on which not a single tree or even bush is to be met with; and they left behind them

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a book in which they recorded the results of their labours in English, French, and German, for the benefit of future scientific visitors.

From St. Paul they sailed, by an almost direct northerly course, to Ceylon, where they stayed little more than a week, during which, however, they saw enough to enable them to appreciate the masterly description of the island by its recent governor, Sir Emerson Tennent, which they had carefully studied, and enough also to justify them, in their own opinion, in forming a less favourable judgment of our qualities as governors of distant dependencies, than they had conceived from their sojourn at the Cape. They admit, however, that the defects and shortcomings which had been a hindrance to the development of the resources of the island, were already recognized by ourselves; and again, they do full justice to the energy in which "the English people have the advantage over all other nations," so that with them to perceive an evil and to remedy it, are almost convertible terms.

Of the richness of those resources, and the beauty of the greater part of the island, travellers are pretty well agreed, though there are not many of them who go as far as our doctor, who affirms it to have been "the site of the Garden of Eden, the first abode of the progenitors of the human race." The same authority speaks more favourably of the vigour of the natives than Mr. Elwes, who describes the men, though handsome, as "a most effeminate-looking race, having their hair long, with a comb in it, like women, and wearing bracelets on their arms."

Sir Emerson has left them little to do in general description, but one quotation of Dr. Scherzer's, from a Cingalese author, on the subject of womanly beauty, we cannot resist transcribing. A woman, according to the standard of perfection established in Ceylon, should have, it seems,—

"Hair glossy as the tail of a peacock, and hanging in ringlets to the knee; eyebrows like the rainbow [that is, we presume, arched]; eyes like sapphire, or the leaves of the Manilla flower; a hawk nose; lips lustrous and red as coral; teeth small and regular, like the buds of the jasmine; neck thick and round; haunches broad; breast firm and conical, like the cocoa-nut; the figure slight, capable of being spanned by the hand; the limbs spindle-shaped; the sole of the foot without any hollow; the skin free from any prominence of the bones, sweeping in rounded curves, soft and tender" (p. 350).

From Ceylon the *Novara* proceeded to Madras, where they arrived at the time of the great festival in honour of Vishnu, in some of whose temples, improvised for the occasion, the visitors were astonished to find, instead of the mis-shapen deities whom they had expected to see, copies of the Venus de Medici, the Apollo, and voluptuous pictures of Oriental odalisques; till they found that the chief ambition of the Hindoo priests was to have their walls copiously decorated; and, provided this were the case, they troubled themselves but little with the subjects. Of the public establishments at Madras, Dr. Scherzer reports most favourably both of the scientific and charitable institutions which abound in that city; and which furnish abundant proof of the zeal of the British Government (then exercised by the Company) for the welfare of its subjects, and of the enlightened judgment by which that zeal has generally been directed in its exercise. Again he acknowledges the hospitality of our Governor, Lord Harris; and if our officers at all times greeted the unwonted appearance of an Austrian man-of-war with cordiality, it must be acknowledged that their courtesy was received in a fitting spirit, and that the historian of the expedition does his utmost by his frank and grateful acknowledgment of the treatment they experienced to co-operate with the British officials in cementing the friendship between the two countries: a bond which cannot fail to be further strengthened by the sisterly kindness of Queen Victoria in placing her royal yacht at the disposal of the Empress of Austria for her visit to Madeira, which the delicacy of her Imperial Majesty's health unfortunately made requisite during the past winter.

Beyond Madras the present volume does not carry us. At some future time we shall hope that a second volume will present us with the impressions made on our voyagers by China, Japan, and our Australian colonies. Meanwhile, we can sincerely recommend the volume before us to all who can appreciate a modest and manifestly truthful account of a very interesting expedition.

THE PHYSICAL CONSTITUTION OF COMETS.*

COMETS in all ages have excited wonder and surprise; and while astronomers, except in a few instances, can neither lay down their courses nor predict the periods of their reappearances, they present a fair ground for speculation. The received theories of astronomers as yet do not appear of much value, and so we may fairly consider any which are from time to time produced, if they have either ingenuity or apparent truthfulness to recommend them. Mr. Downes' theory is certainly ingenious, and as it meets some of the difficulties which the received theories do not account for, we fairly suspect that, at least, there may be some truth in it. We do not like to advocate it, for we are naturally fearful of innovations, especially when they are highly speculative; but we should like to see his theory tested, and in giving prominence to it at this time, the world can judge how far the appearances which the new comet shining so brightly in our skies presents can be explained and elucidated by it. Many more details are given by Mr. Downes than we can possibly refer to here, and which cannot but prove suggestive to observers; his book, therefore, deserves perusal at this season.

His ideas are, that a proper conception of the nature and physical constitution of comets is necessary to any satisfactory explanation of the reason why they differ so essentially in their appearances and movements from the other planets of the solar system. As many hundreds of comets have appeared, while a few only, and those but of short periods, have been recognized as having been previously seen; he thinks it is therefore desirable to generalize the appearances presented by these bodies, and regard them as a class rather than as individuals. Consequently he divides the subject into three heads,—their general appearance to the unassisted vision; their peculiarities revealed by the telescope; their motions. To the naked eye a comet on its first appearance is an ill-defined and indistinct nebula, with a more or less luminous centre, in which are sometimes indications of a nucleus. As the comet approaches the sun there is gradually developed on the side of the nucleus turned from the sun a luminous stream or tail, which is transparent, and admits the passage of light from very small stars. In the comet's progress towards the sun the tail, though retaining in the immediate vicinity of the nucleus its direction away from the sun, assumes in its remoter parts a degree of curvature, which continues to increase uniformly until a short time after perihelion. In some cases the tail either seems not to survive the perihelion passage, or assumes a new character. Along the middle of the tail a degree of darkness seems to prevail, in some cases extending so far as to cause an apparent division of the tail into two luminous streamers, and in other cases extending only to a certain distance, beyond which the illuminated portions re-unite. On the return of the comet from perihelion the phenomena presented

on its approach are reversed, the tail subsides, and the comet passes out of sight as a faint nebulous disc.

Such are the general appearances of comets which it has been the object of the current theories to explain. Some suppose the tail to be imponderable; others, that it is material. Some suppose the rejection of the tail as due to the external influence of the sun's rays; others, as due to the inherent properties of its constituent elements. Kepler considered it as due to some unexplained operation of the sun's rays; Newton, to the heat of the sun, which, in rarefying the ether of space, entangled it with the material of the tail, which was thus carried upwards; Bessel, whose theory is most in favour, assumes that the action of one body on another consists of two parts; the one the same for all particles, and the other consisting of the differences of the actions on the different particles, the action of the first becoming sensible when the bodies are at a very great distance apart, and the action of the second on nearer approach. Thus, by the action of the first part, the particles which have opposite polarity to the sun are volatilized. At a later period, by the operation of the other part of the force, a polarization of the comet itself takes place, and thence an outstreaming towards the sun. To account for the matter being subsequently driven back by the sun, he assumes that space is filled with matter of opposite polarity, which, destroying the polarity of the matter constituting the tail, imparts antagonistic properties, and so drives the tail away from the nucleus. Such is a brief summary of the theories which, for convenience or purposes of calculation, have been adopted, but it cannot be thought that any of these theories are satisfactory.

Mr. Downes, in his theory, starts on the basis that comets are of like physical constitution to the earth, and that the phenomena they exhibit are due to the operation of the laws known to prevail here—the laws of heat and matter. He next considers what would be the result if the earth, consisting of a central body, on which rest the waters and on which again rests the air, and moving in an orbit of small eccentricity, always within the sun's calorific influence, were to move in an orbit of great eccentricity, such as a comet's. What changes of condition would the operation of the laws of caloric be likely to produce in the materials of which the earth is composed?

The eccentricity of our planet's orbit is so slight, as not to give us any data for answering the question; but the eccentricity of a comet's path is so great, that extreme variations from heat to cold must result. The degree of heat during perihelion passage has been surmised. Newton suggested 2,000 times the heat of red-hot iron for the comet of 1680, but the degree of cold to which comets are exposed in aphelion has not attracted much attention. One would consider that the heat derived from the sun by a comet when at its greatest distance from it, must be infinitesimally small, as the sun would not then appear, from its surface, larger than a star, and Mr. Downes' inference seems fair, that such a degree of cold would be then experienced, as we have no instance of on this earth, and such as chemists cannot manufacture.

Mr. Downes thinks, however, we can predicate by induction what the effects of such cold would be on the constituent elements of our own planet. He thinks that, as heat causes a mutual repulsion of the constituents of every body it permeates, just as we pass from solid to fluid, to vapour, and again into gas, so, on the other hand, by reducing the temperature, our atmosphere would be reduced to a fluid, our ocean to a solid; and if the intensity of cold went on, solids, by the close coherence of their atoms together, would become cellular and filled with interstices, the surface being probably reduced to powder, just as we see in the case of newly-fallen snow, which, forming at first a compact cushion, becomes granulated, after a few hours' frost, by the attraction of cohesion of the component crystals.

He then considers the probable effect of such a greatly reduced state of cold on our own atmosphere. Carbonic acid and other gases have been congealed at temperatures moderate in comparison with that experienced by a comet at aphelion; many gases have been liquefied with the low temperatures at the command of the chemist, and so much caloric has been expelled from atmospheric air by compression, as to justify the supposition that it too is capable of solidification by cold. Our globe, then, under cometary conditions of cold, would be compressed by the attraction of cohesion, it would be encrusted by a cellular crystallized envelope; and having no gaseous atmosphere, it would, when it first attained a position to reflect the sun's light without being affected by the sun's heat, present the appearance of a star.

Having, then, considered our globe as reduced to the cometary conditions of cold, what would be the result when, in that state, in its close swinging round the sun, it came gradually within the influence of the calorific rays, and ultimately within an intensity of their action, of which we have no conception from any terrestrial phenomena?

The passage through this segment of a comet's orbit is obviously deserving of the most careful consideration. Mr. Downes's theory takes up the case. He considers that, in its progress to perihelion, the nucleus, coated with its highly sensitive and expansive crust, becomes gradually submitted to the influence of the sun's calorific rays; those elements which were the last to succumb to the cold, will be the first to yield to the heat, and consequently the exterior envelope of crystals will begin to assume a gaseous form. As gases are more susceptible of expansion by caloric than solids, the expansion of the air-crystal in the process of dissolution would be followed by a much more rapid expansion of the air after dissolution. Mr. Downes thinks this expansion would be so great, that the conversion of each air-crystal would partake of the nature of an explosion, and, by scattering the adjacent undissolved crystals, would cause them to be carried up in groups or flakes in the stream of dissolved and continually expanding air rejected from the nucleus. The dissolved air would, of course, be invisible, but the crystals themselves would be visible; and as on its first appearance the nucleus would be viewed from the earth, from a similar point of view as from the sun, it would appear enveloped in a cloud of crystals, and present the aspect of a faint nebula with a central illuminated spot. As the nucleus advanced towards the sun the rays of heat would become more powerful, and the action of dissolution consequently more intense. Clusters of crystals of frozen water would commingle with crystals of frozen air, and increase the density of the upward stream; and as there exists a constant relation between the degree of heat imparted and the degree of expansion effected, the continuous increments of heat would cause a corresponding and uniform increase in the quantity of crystals dissolved and the rate and extent of expansion. Thus, from the side of the nucleus facing the sun, the matter would be constantly rejected at an increasing ratio the more closely it approached the source of heat.

The rejection of the matters thus volatilized is next considered by Mr. Downes. The rejection takes place in front of the nucleus, and its direction is governed by the position of that part of the surface of the nucleus on which the action takes place; at its origin it will be at right angles to the surface; hence, if the surface be spherical, the radii produced would coincide with the lines of rejection. Moreover, it is evident, that if the surrounding crust be homogenous, the force of rejection must vary with the heat absorbed; thus, at the centre of the front the absorption of heat and the consequent rejection of the matter of the crust must

* On the Physical Constitution of Comets. By O. G. Downes, F.R.A.S. London: C. & E. Layton. 1860.

be at a maximum, and the decrease to a minimum would be to a boundary-line between the front and back of the nucleus. If a group of crystals be exposed to the action of the sun's rays, expansion would be initiated on the side facing the sun. This expansion, however, would be a force called into action, and there must be a consequent reaction on the group itself; the dissolved air would advance towards the sun, and the crystals would apparently recede in an opposite direction. Introducing, however, the gravitation of the nucleus, we have a force which would compel the whole group to return to the centre, and the operation of this force, by furnishing a fulcrum against which the expansion going on in the front group of crystals can act, converts the expansion into an active force, imparting momentum to the crystals, and so repelling them towards the back of the nucleus. Arrived in that position, the force of expansion would have a firmer fulcrum in the nucleus itself and its surrounding atmosphere against which to act; while, from the continual recess of the groups of crystals to positions farther removed behind the nucleus, the coercion of the nucleus would become more and more feeble, while the lapse of time would allow a more perfect conduction of the sun's heat into the substance of the crystals, and so permit expansion to take place with the greatest rapidity.

In this way Mr. Downes supplies the place of the long sought-for force by the operation by which the sun's rays were supposed first to elicit and then repel the visible constituents of a comet's tail. The magnitude of the tail would depend on the degree of heat experienced, and the nucleus, hazy at first, would, as it moved towards the sun, expand into a tail, which would reach its maximum extent on the accession of the maximum degree of heat, i.e., at its nearest approach to the sun. The tail would thus not be merely a vapour, but of material constitution, and subject to the ordinary laws of matter; and Mr. Downes points out the manner in which the curvatures of the tail would take place in accordance with such condition. Moreover, from the materiality of the tail, its constituents, as they passed away from the sun back into space, would become subject to reconduction, and the tail would diminish until the comet would pass out of sight as it came into view, a star-like nebula.

The annexed cut shows the various appearances presented by a comet during perihelion passage, the white star in the centre representing the sun.

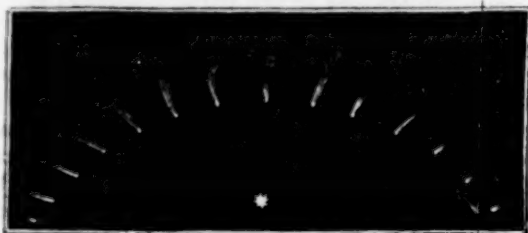
By the issue of jets of expansive matter, and by the inequality of its surface and the eccentricity of the centre of gravity caused by the deposition of the re-condensed material of the tail at the back of the nucleus, Mr. Downes thinks axial rotation of the comet might be originated and periodically accelerated. Finally he contrasts the results actually presented by comets with the speculative inductions of his own theory, laying especial stress on Donati's comet of 1858, a figure of which, as given by Mr. Bond, we annex.

The observations on Donati's comet appear to indicate rotatory motion; the force of rejection being much greater than in Halley's comet. According to M. Chacornai's observations a week before its perihelion passage, the nucleus was enclosed within three involucre, consisting of concentric semi-circles, of different luminous intensities. The two most brilliant of these were traversed by rays, which were alternately luminous and dull. The germ of a fourth involucre was apparent, which afterwards expanded, and a fifth was then initiated. Two more were afterwards disengaged. These appearances, Mr. Downes considers, furnish evidences of axial rotation, and that a great rate of expansion is necessary to permit a visible distinction between the involucre generated by different jets. Hence it would be only when the nucleus is subjected to very powerful solar influence that such involucre would be patent. At other times they would be probably merged into each other, and only present the effect of a nebulous envelope.

The relative degree of brilliancy of the different jets might, perhaps, Mr. Downes thinks, indicate the direction of the plane of axial rotation, if it should appear that the degree of brightness depended on the position rather than on the magnitude of the jets as viewed from the earth. Then the greater brilliancy of a jet, arising from its being seen through a thinner veil of crystals when nearest to the point of view, would indicate the nearest point of the equator of the nucleus, or rather the point of latitude exposed to the maximum degree of heat. In like manner jets of lesser brilliancy would indicate other positions in that parallel of latitude. Thus, in the figure, the jet, *a*, may be the nearest, and the other jets lie in a plane represented by the curve, *b*, *c*, *d*.

The transparency of the tails of comets does not necessarily prove tenuity of matter, for transparency is a property which may be possessed by matters of every degree of density; as, for examples, glass, diamond, or the lightest gas. There is no justification, therefore, of the inference that they are ethereal emanations from the nucleus, alike without substance or coherence, and liable to dissipation from the slightest cause.

From the variations in the orbits of comets, the gradual reduction of the major axes of the paths of those whose orbits are known, and the gradual attainment of a more equable and permanent condensation or solidification of their material substances, Mr. Downes thinks (if we understand him rightly) that even the planets of our system may have settled down from a cometary condition, as he conceives other comets may now be slowly but surely doing; and that, instead of comets being looked upon as "mere flimsy vapours wandering in space, subject to extreme perturbation on their approach to any solid body, exposed to the resistance of matter of great tenuity floating in space and impeding their progress, liable at any moment to dissipation or destruction, likely fortuitously to come into contact with the earth or any other member of the solar system, or as tokens of danger impending over kings or cities, they may be regarded as integral constituents of the perfect symmetry and consummate beauty of the solar system, and destined, like all the works of the Great Creator, to accomplish a beneficent end."



Donati's Comet, 1858.



HESIOD.*

The "Bibliotheca Classica," of which the volume before us forms a portion, though not of equal merit in all its volumes, contains in its series some of the most valuable contributions to classical literature that have ever been furnished by English scholars. Formerly, as is well known, the notes to all our classical books were written in Latin; not only by foreigners, but also by scholars of our own country, who naturally wished their labours to be appreciated by those of Italy, France, and Germany. But, about forty years ago, the absurdity of writing notes for English boys in a language either the same as, or even more difficult, than that which they were intended to illustrate, occurred to some of the masters engaged in our great metropolitan schools. Mr. Trollope, of Christ's Hospital, opened a new path by a most admirable edition of the "Iliad," with English notes. Then Mr. Major, of King's College, issued a careful translation of Porson's "Euripides." These volumes were followed by many independent editions of separate works. And a few years ago, Mr. Whittaker undertook the publication of an entire series of the most important authors. He was exceedingly fortunate in obtaining for the general editor of the whole selection, Mr. George Long—a gentleman universally known as one of the soundest scholars, perhaps (if we take both languages into account) the very best scholar in England; and the editor of the present volume, Mr. Paley, who has already enriched the collection with admirable editions of "Æschylus" and "Euripides," is one of the most distinguished of his collaborators.

We therefore looked forward with eagerness to his promised edition of Hesiod; and we have not been disappointed in the anticipations which we had formed of its probable value. It is very singular that there should be such a scarcity of good editions, in any language, of this poet, whom Virgil avowedly took for his model in the most perfect of his poems; but this fact only makes the necessity for such a book the greater. And, now that the knowledge of the English language is so widely diffused among foreign nations, we can hardly doubt not only that this volume will greatly extend the study of the poet among ourselves, but that it will be greeted with a hearty welcome by continental scholars.

As is the case with one of the great works of Porson, the preface is not the least valuable or interesting portion of Mr. Paley's work; and it at once gives us a favourable idea of the spirit in which he has approached his task, and of the solidity of his critical judgment, to find that he makes no attempt to overrate the genius of the poet whom he has undertaken to illustrate, but that he places the importance of the study of his works upon the proper ground; deprecating the neglect of them because they are perhaps the most ancient specimen of Greek literature that has come down to us, and, being such, superior to every other work, with the exception of the immortal works of Homer, as illustrations of the Greek language.

We need not recapitulate the arguments by which he establishes the great antiquity of the poems as a whole, even while admitting the extent to which they have suffered from the interpolations of subsequent ages, and the arrogant incompetence of Alexandrian and Roman critics; but we may point out that Mr. Paley adds his testimony also to the great weight due to the authority of Herodotus, whose reputation as an industrious and acute investigator has been now for many years continually on the rise, and whose statements even now receive frequent corroboration from modern researches.

Nor need we embark in the inquiry which Mr. Paley opens, into the question whether the common interpretation of the first chapter of Genesis be correct, or whether the account there given be consistent with the supposition that the existence of man as an inhabitant of the earth may be referred to a date long anterior to the six thousand years usually assigned to it. The arguments which he alleges for a belief in a much greater antiquity of the human race are very striking, while at the same time they are brought forward in a spirit of reverence very different from that which has actuated other speculators of our day, whose object seems to have been not so much to throw additional or new light on the facts recorded in the holiest of all books, as, by pointing out occasional difficulties, to upset the authority of that book altogether. Very different is the feeling which actuates Mr. Paley. He rather aims at corroborating the authority of the earliest Jewish historian, by pointing out "the wonderful coincidence, in some points, of the Hesiodic with the Mosaic cosmogony":—

"Hesiod agrees with Moses in speaking of earth being modelled or produced out of a formless mass; of the existence of darkness and subsequent light, of heaven (firmament or atmosphere, *οὐρανός*, as distinct from *αἰθήρ*), of the elevation of mountains, the spreading out of the sea, of the separate and subsequent creation of sun, moon, and stars, the introduction of fishes and great monsters in the sea, and of mighty trees upon the earth, is symbolically described by the birth of Cete from Nereus, and the Meleæ, or guardian nymphs of ash-trees" (p. xxi.).

In like manner he finds the doctrine of Satan and the fallen angels of Scripture reproduced in the Hesiodic rebellion of Saturn against Uranus, of Jupiter against Saturn, and the pushing of Saturn (the arch rebel), Typhoeus, the great serpent, and the Titans, their compeers, into hell; and, summing up an enumeration of many most remarkable coincidences with that of the poet's description of "the destruction of mankind, and their annihilation from earth at an early stage of their existence, in punishment for their impiety," he points out how the existence of these heathen traditions confirms the Bible, since "these statements seem reflections of Mosaic and Scriptural doctrines, and are too well marked to be regarded as mere casual resemblances" (p. xxiii.).

Still more interesting to scholars will be the learned though too brief discussion on the Digamma, which concludes the preface. To British, and especially to Cambridge scholars, this subject has a peculiar attraction, from the fact of its having been discovered by that glory of their university, the illustrious Bentley. The late Bishop Monk has recorded the steps by which that greatest of modern scholars was led to the discovery, from a consideration of the metrical difficulties which were presented by the ordinary editions of Homer. He, as is well known, died before he had completed his examination of that poet; and subsequent critics, who have endeavoured to follow in his steps, have also confined themselves to the Iliad and Odyssey, though the poems of Hesiod are still more calculated to throw light on the question; since, as Mr. Paley remarks, "it might be expected that what is called the Æolic digamma, would be more uniformly and carefully observed by Hesiod as a Boeotian, than by Homer, whose dialect partakes of an Ionic character. And such, indeed, seems to be the case. As far as we can judge, in really genuine verses, Hesiod's use of the digamma is pretty constant, though not absolutely invariable" (p. xxx.).

As to its sound, he coincides with Bentley, who, as Bishop Monk informs us (Life of Bentley, p. 622), always pronounced it as W; though we can hardly agree with Mr. Paley in thinking the correctness of this pronunciation corroborated by the connection between *ῥῆγρον* and *ῥῆγρον* with our words *work* and *wine*, or between *ῥῆγρον* and our *wise*, *wist*, and *wizard* (p. xxxiii.), while it can hardly be denied that the fact of those Latin words, which are derived immediately from digammated Greek words, such as *vinum*, *vicus*, *vis*, *video*, &c., all,

* The Epics of Hesiod. With an English Commentary. By F. A. Paley, M.A. Whittaker & Co.; Bell & Daldy.

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without exception, using the *v*, is a strong argument for that having been the sound of the digamma.

Bishop Monk's own opinion was probably not very far from the truth, when he argued from "the authorities which we possess upon this doubtful question, that the sound varied in different parts of the Grecian territory" (p. 622). And we may easily acknowledge the force of this observation when we recollect how frequently we find this the case in modern languages; the single *g* in German, to take the most kindred letter as an example, when terminating a word, having a hard sound in some provinces, like that in our word *gig*, and a soft sound, something like that of our *j*, in other parts of the German Empire.

Mr. Paley agrees with most of his predecessors on this subject that "one of the greatest difficulties in the theory of the digamma arises from the fact that its use does not seem constant even in those words which nearly always take it." But this is only what occurs in the case of other letters also, of which a conspicuous instance is afforded by the two forms *γαῖα* and *αἶα*, which are used indifferently not only by Homer but even by the Attic poets; and he himself nearly disposes of the difficulty by the preference which he avows for the theory, that "it was an arbitrary sound, and could be used or omitted according to metrical convenience" (xxxiv.); though he contends at the same time that its use "could not have been wholly arbitrary, even as an initial letter, as is proved by its occurrence in inscriptions unfettered by metre" (xxxvi.).

But, lest this observation should lead those who have not studied the question to undervalue the originality of Bentley's discovery, we must remind such persons of Dr. Monk's observation:—

"It must not be forgotten that Bentley made this discovery at a time when there was much less information respecting the old orthography of Greece than we now possess. Subsequent to his time the publication of some ancient grammatical works, of which he knew nothing, has taught us that the digamma was actually used in the very words to which Bentley affixed it. And a similar confirmation of his doctrine is derived from old inscriptions upon stones dug out of ruins in those parts of Greece where this consonant held its ground the longest" (p. 619).

We have not space to follow Mr. Paley through others of his disquisitions into the force of "the sibilant aspirate," or into the manner in which the evanescence of the digamma from some words "has left the rough breathing" in them; it is more to the purpose to point out how his adherence to Bentley's theory, coupled with an extraordinary diligence in the collation of ancient MSS., has enabled him to correct some manifestly faulty readings, such as—

"Μουννογενής δὲ πᾶσι οἶκον πατρίων ἐν
Φερβίμην." Op. 376.

where the old reading *σώζου . . . οἶκον* was nearly unintelligible; and his correction of the last line in the same page, "Ὡδ' ἔρδεν, ἔργον δ' ἐπὶ ἔργῳ ἐργάζεσθαι," seems no less certain, though this he has forborne to introduce into the text.

In his corrections of the text of his author, Mr. Paley is as cautious as Porson himself, never venturing on an alteration which is not manifestly required by the sense or by the metre, nor on one which is not supported in some degree by MS. authority, presenting in this particular a strong contrast to some critics of the modern German school, who seem to consider the work which they profess to edit merely as a vehicle to show how much better they could have written themselves.

His notes are equally characterized by sound learning and sagacious judgment. We will extract one on the E. κ. H. 123, which, as he says,

"May be called a *locus classicus* on the early Greek notions of *δαίμονες*. If *ἐπιχθόνιοι* be the right reading (and it is supported by *πάντη φοιτῶντες ἐπ' αἶαν*), the poet's idea must have been that the invisible spirits of the departed attend men in all their actions like guardian angels. According to a later view the *δαίμονες* as well as the *ἡρώες* were Chthonian powers to be feared and to be propitiated. Here they are beneficent genii more nearly allied to the Olympian gods. There is an obvious resemblance between this and the doctrine of guardian angels and spirits who are supposed to take an interest in the affairs of man upon earth. Goettling considers that this opinion was not of Greek origin, but was borrowed from the East. Rather it was one of the doctrines respecting the invisible world which, held by nearly all nations of all times in common, seem fairly referable to some universal instinct of man."

In another note, θ, 227, he not only explains his author, but illustrates a greater poet at the same time, pointing out the extent to which Virgil considered himself at liberty to vary the received mythology to suit his metre; when he translates *Λήθη* by *Lethum*, as in another passage he had changed *Ὀρέος*, the son of *Ἐρις*, into *Pallidus Orcus*.

In its typographical portion the volume is admirably got up, being printed with great accuracy and great elegance; and in every way it forms a most valuable—indeed, indispensable—addition to a classical library.

GREAT EXPECTATIONS.*

THIS work was originally published in a weekly periodical, which is mainly indebted for its popularity and large circulation to the well-known fact that its principal contributor as well as proprietor is Mr. Charles Dickens. "Great Expectations" resembles, in more than one respect, other tales written by Mr. Dickens—that is, it is remarkable for many of those traits of humour and quick perception of character, with a racy power of describing peculiarities of demeanour which first won for the author the high reputation he so deservedly enjoys. "Great Expectations" has, however, a higher claim than any work that has ever before emanated from the pen of Mr. Dickens upon the public attention, because it appears to be written with a higher and nobler aim than any of its predecessors, and to keep the objects towards which it is directed more steadily, constantly, and continuously before the reader. Its purpose is to perform the functions of a great and earnest social teacher, whose lecture consists of a clever tale, pleasantly told, but with a moral attached almost to every incident that is introduced.

The two worst plagues of society in every country of Europe at the present moment, but more prevalent, perhaps, in England than elsewhere, are, first, a discontent with every condition in life which does not afford to its occupant an indulgence in luxuries and a display of wealth; and, secondly, a slavish idolatry of riches, as if their possession were tantamount to the enjoyment of real happiness. In the same chapter of Cicero's book, "De Officiis," may be found two sentences, the first of which might be applied to this universal craving after wealth, and the second be adopted as the motto or sentiment which the last work of Charles Dickens seeks to enforce. "Our manners and our modes of life," observes the orator, "are corrupted and depraved by an admiration of great wealth" (*corrupti mores depravatque sunt admiratione divitiarum*). "The only sure and solid foundation for lasting fame and true respect is," says Cicero, "justice, without which quality there is no one thing worthy a word of praise" (*Fundamentum enim perpetua commendationis et famæ est justitia, sine qua nihil potest esse laudabile*).

In "Great Expectations" the object of the author has been to show how a

nature originally good and generous, and a disposition innately affectionate, have been marred by discontent at his own condition in life being inspired into the mind of the hero by the display of wealth which he was only permitted to look at, and then was forced to contrast with the sordid poverty, in the midst of which he had been nurtured. There is great artistic skill exhibited in the working out of the plot of "Great Expectations." Sympathy is first excited for the unhappy hero by the cruelty and maltreatment to which he is exposed—a little helpless orphan—by a harsh, hard-hearted elder sister, who, with some useful qualities, renders herself a curse to him and to her kind-hearted huge husband, "Joe, the blacksmith"—one of those charming, simple, generous, unselfish beings which Mr. Dickens delights in depicting, and that no other writer can equal in describing. Pity is felt for the miserable little boy against whom every voice is uplifted, and who is brow-beaten, contemned, and vilified on all sides, and in the midst of his misery finds no one to say a kind word to him but honest old "Joe" and a poor trodden-down servant-girl, or drudge, called "Biddy." The great difficulty which the author had to overcome was to continue for his hero the sympathy of the reader, when he describes the same hero abandoning his love for Biddy to run after a pretty-faced, cold-hearted maiden; and when he receives unexpectedly a large accession of fortune, foregoing the friendship of the protector of his boyhood—honest "Joe the blacksmith"—because Joe the blacksmith might be regarded by his new, rich, and worthless acquaintances as being a "low," "mean," "shabby," and "vulgar" person. In connection with this portion of Mr. Dickens's tale, there are passages well worthy of being quoted. Here, for instance, is a most true observation as to the keenness with which children feel when injustice is done to them.

"My sister's bringing up had made me sensitive. In the little world in which children have their existence, whosoever brings them up, there is nothing so finely perceived and so finely felt, as injustice. It may be only small injustice that the child can be exposed to; but the child is small, and its world is small, and its rocking-horse stand as many hands high, according to scale, as a big-boned Irish hunter. Within myself, I had sustained from my babyhood a perpetual conflict with injustice. I had known, from the time when I could speak, that my sister, in her capricious and violent coercion, was unjust to me."

Here, too, is a perfect picture of the conduct of an ill-tempered, unreasonable shrew, exhibiting her vile temper, for no other reason than that employment was offered to the little brother she had been so long tyrannizing over:—

"When I got home at night, and delivered this message for Joe, my sister 'went on the rampage,' in a more alarming degree than at any previous period. She asked me and Joe 'whether we supposed she was door-mats under our feet, and how we dared to use her so, and what company we graciously thought she was fit for?' When she had exhausted a torrent of such inquiries, she threw a candlestick at Joe, burst into a loud sobbing, got out the dust-pan—which was always a very bad sign,—put on her coarse apron, and began cleaning up to a terrible extent. Not satisfied with a dry cleaning, she took to a pail and scrubbing-brush, and cleaned us out of house and home, so we stood shivering in the back yard. It was ten o'clock before we ventured to creep in again; and then she asked Joe why he hadn't married a Negro Slave at once? Joe offered no answer, poor fellow, but stood feeling his whisker, and looking dejectedly at me—as if he really thought it might have been a better speculation."

When the hero, who has been reared in a blacksmith's forge, with no better teachers than his vile-tempered sister and her good-tempered husband, obtains possession of wealth, he requests a friend to give him lessons in politeness, and here are a few of them:—

"In London, it is not the custom to put the knife in the mouth—for fear of accidents—and while the fork is reserved for that use, it is not put further in than is necessary. It is scarcely worth mentioning, only it's as well to do as other people do. Also, the spoon is not generally used over-hand, but under. This has two advantages, you may get at your mouth better (which, after all, is the object), and you save a good deal of the attitude of opening oysters on the part of the right elbow."

"Society, as a body, does not expect one to be so strictly conscientious in emptying one's glass, as to turn it bottom upwards, with the rim on one's nose."

"A dinner napkin will not go into a tumbler."

How just, too, is the following observation, when the hero, in his prosperity, is expecting a visit from his old friend the blacksmith!

"I had little objection to his being seen by Herbert or his father, for both of whom I had a respect; but I had the sharpest sensitiveness as to his being seen by Drummle, whom I held in contempt. So, throughout life, our worst weaknesses and meannesses are usually committed for the sake of the people whom we most despise."

The hero had commenced life by being apprenticed to a blacksmith; but, unhappily for his peace of mind, had been permitted to pass inside the doors of the rich, beheld the wealth they possessed, became captivated by the sight of a most beautiful young girl, and hence, despising his condition in life, aspired to the rank of a gentleman, and unexpectedly finds himself elevated from poverty to independence, with the assurance he was to become the possessor of a large fortune!

We do not intend to detail the plot of "Great Expectations," but sufficient is it to say, that his fortune becomes odious to the hero, and the source from which his wealth is derived so detestable, that he resolves to forego it, and return to the rank of life from which he had suddenly risen. Whether he carries out that resolution or not we leave to the readers of the book to discover.

Our belief is that "Great Expectations" is calculated to add to the fame of Mr. Dickens as a writer; that, whilst it aids in maintaining his popularity, it also serves to show that he can well perform the task of a social instructor, and a practical moralist. Of his previous publications it may be truly said, they were "good books," but here is "a better book" than any other. It teaches men to be content with that position in life that has been assigned to them by Providence; it proves that wealth does not constitute happiness; and that there can be no true and lasting contentment in any condition of circumstances, unless accompanied by justice in our dealings with others, and a clear conscience.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTICES.

The Leighs; or, the Discipline of Daily Life. By Miss Palmer. With illustrations by Walter Ray Woods. London: James Hogg & Sons.—A family history, dealing much with the characters of girls as it is affected by their early habits and training. The book is well calculated to be read with interest by young ladies, and none can read it without deriving considerable benefit from the instruction which it conveys in the form of a skilfully-written tale.

A Handful of Paper Shavings. By T. C. Henley. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.; Swansea: Pearce & Brown.—A collection of paragraphs, which we are informed by the author had been originally "written for amusement's sake in the leisure half-hours of a country journalist," and to which might be applied the line of the Latin epigrammatist:—

"Sunt bona, sunt quedam mediocra, sunt mala plura."

Six Years in Italy. By Kate Crichton, author of "Before the Dawn in Italy." In Two Vols. London: Charles J. Skeet, 10, King William-street, Charing-cross.—This is a very pleasantly-written book. The writer enjoyed what she saw, because every scene was new to her; but to travellers—the common run of

* Great Expectations. By Charles Dickens. Three volumes. London: Chapman & Hall, 193, Piccadilly. 1861.

travellers who migrate yearly from England—every step of the route she describes is almost as well known as the stations on the Brighton, North-Western, and South Wales lines of railway. Hence all that can be said of the "Six Years in Italy" is that it tells us nothing novel of the country or the people; that the book is an old story on an old subject newly recited; and this done with such grace and neatness, we regret talents wasted on such a work were not otherwise employed.

The British Controversialist, and Literary Magazine. London: Houlston & Wright, 65, Paternoster-row.—The title of this very useful volume is not happily chosen; for with the multitude, so easily misled by names, it may be supposed to be devoted peculiarly to the discussion of religious subjects. Such is not the case; for its pages are "devoted to the impartial and deliberate discussion of important questions in religion, philosophy, history, politics, social economy, &c., and to the promotion of self-culture, and general education." A fair hearing is given to all sides; and in its pages will be found the ablest arguments that can be advanced for, or against what may be the prevailing opinions upon topics particularly occupying the public attention at the moment. As a bound volume containing 425 pages—it constitutes a very valuable collection of first-rate contributions on most important topics.

Rambles in Serk. Scenery, History, Laws of one of the Channel Islands. London: Longman, Brown, Green, & Longmans. Guernsey: H. Redstone. Jersey: C. Le Feuvre. Ealing: J. Acworth.—Serk is the smallest of the Channel Islands,—"a strip of granite, three miles long by one mile and a half in breadth, and inhabited by some six hundred souls." Few would suppose that such a place could present many attractions to strangers. Such is not the opinion of the writer of this little volume, for he observes,—"If picturesque and varied scenery,—if a table-land standing up on all sides three hundred feet above the sea,—if wooded ravines and wild fantastic caves, a remarkable geological structure, numerous and rare wild flowers, algæ, and sea animals, and withal a feudal government based on an unwritten law,—if these things constitute interest, Serk will yield pleasure for weeks and months." The mode of reaching this little paradise, as well as all other particulars desirable to be known, are set forth in a small volume bearing the title of "Rambles in Serk."

Something for Everybody. By John Timbs, F.S.A. London: Lockwood & Co., Stationers' Hall-court. A collection of scraps made by a diligent scholar in a long life of literature, and imparting information in such a manner as to be pleasing to the young, and welcome to the old. Mr. Timbs has published many good books, but none better or more deserving of popularity than that to which he has given the appropriate title of "Something for Everybody."

The East Coast of England, from the Thames to the Tweed, descriptive of Natural Scenery, historical, archaeological, and legendary. By Mackenzie E. C. Walcott, M.A., of Exeter College, Oxford. London: Edward Stanford, 6, Charing Cross, S.W.—This is a guide-book for Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Lincolnshire, Yorkshire, and Northumberland; and is admirably arranged, giving to the traveller the most minute information to help him on his way, and to aid him in passing his time pleasantly, economically, and profitably. Mr. Walcott is a most agreeable travelling companion, and contrives to introduce into his pages everything that is worth telling respecting each place that the summer traveller may chance to look at. What we admire most in him, however, is his collection of stories and legends, of which the following brief extract may be regarded as a specimen:—

"A wood on the west, steep and winding, part of *Limber Hill*, leads to *Beggar's Bridge*, which spans the Eak with a single arch, and is said to have been built by a man of Epton. Years ago there was only a ford at this spot, dangerous where the deep and winding river was swollen, and impracticable during floods. Up in *Grais Dale*, under the trees of *Arnecliff*, one weary night a weary girl watched in vain for her lover to keep his tryst; but the wind blew fiercely and the Eak rose, and vainly the poor fellow attempted to swim the angry tide, although the light in the cottage-window shone brightly as a well-known signal. The current swept him back again and again, and at length his strength was thoroughly spent, and he turned away, waving a mute farewell and praying for a blessing on her head. The fording-stones lay many a day concealed under the torrent, while leagues away from Whitby the poor sailor lover was borne on the deck of a gallant ship, beneath a crowd of canvas, to seek his fortunes in foreign lands, and vowed, if he might once more return, he would build a bridge for the benefit of all future lovers. Years went by, and the adventurer came back rich in gold and bronzed with the sun of the East; but before he wedded his bride in Epton Church he had built the *Beggar's Bridge*, and so led her over it on his wedding morning."

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Miss Freer's "Life of Jeanne D'Albert," which for a long period has been out of print, will form the new volume of Messrs. Hurst & Blackett's Standard Library.

Notwithstanding Dr. Gray's personal attack on M. Paul du Chailu, and want of faith in that gentleman's marvellous account of his travels, the trustees of the British Museum have shown their sympathy in his cause by purchasing the whole of the Du Chailu collection of the newly-discovered man-gorilla.

Messrs. Hurst & Blackett will shortly publish another of Mr. Mayne Reid's exciting romantic stories.

Mr. Thomas Bell, of King's College, is preparing a new edition of "White's History of Selborne."

It is said that Mrs. Oliphant is engaged in writing a memoir of the Rev. Edward Irving, who at one period caused considerable attention as an eminent preacher.

James Virtue & Co. have in the press a "History of Domestic Manners and Sentiments in England during the Middle Ages," by Mr. Thomas Wright, to be profusely illustrated with woodcuts taken from the Mediaeval illuminated manuscripts and other sources.

On the 1st of August, Messrs. Kent & Co. will publish the first part of "The Useful Plants of Great Britain," illustrated by John Sowerby, to be completed in twelve parts. Each part will contain twenty-four figures and descriptions.

Messrs. Ward & Lock will shortly publish "The Home Tutor," a treasury of useful knowledge, embracing plain and practical treatises on all the subjects that interest youthful inquirers, as well as the partially educated student. This work is to be prepared for publication by writers of the highest eminence in the different departments of knowledge within its scope.

On the 1st of August Mr. Beeton will issue the first part of his Illuminated Family Bible.

Mr. Skeet has just issued a new Catalogue. We did not notice anything of particular interest, but to the book-collector in general there are many works which he will be glad to meet with.

Mr. Jack, of Edinburgh, announces a new work by Mr. John Gamgee and Mr. James Law, on "The Descriptive Anatomy of the Domestic Animals." It is to be fully illustrated with plates and woodcuts.

Messrs. James Hogg & Sons have in the press a "Piano Primer," by Mr. Edmund Dixon, to be printed full music size. It will illustrate by example and precept the art of pianoforte playing, in conversations between the teacher and pupil, with upwards of a hundred exercises and recreations.

Mr. John Laurie Rickards is about to publish "Notes on India," which will be dedicated to Lord Stanley.

Mr. Effingham Wilson has this day published, in one volume, "The Theory of the Foreign Exchanges."

The fourth volume of M. Guizot's "Personal Memoirs," published by Mr. Bentley, containing a narrative of the events at the critical period of the Eastern question, is now ready.

The Proprietors of the "London Post-Office Directory" have just issued an octavo volume, under the title of the "Post-Office and Suburban Court Guide," which includes the names and addresses of the nobility and gentry residing in London and the suburbs to the boundary of the Metropolitan Postal District. Thus, in one volume, we have information hitherto only accessible in several expensive volumes.

The long-promised memoir of the Rev. John Clay, Chaplain of Preston Gaol, will be published in a few days by Messrs. Macmillan.

Messrs. Longman will publish immediately "The Comets: a Popular Treatise," by Francis Arago, reprinted from Arago's "Popular Astronomy," translated by Admiral W. H. Smyth, D.C.L., with a preface, and a brief account of the comets discovered since the original publication of the translation, now added by Robert Grant.

Mr. Benjamin Ferrey's "Recollections of A. N. Welby Pugin, and his father, Augustus Pugin," will be published next week by Mr. Stanford. The work will contain portraits and numerous illustrations.

Mr. Manwaring will publish this day "A Note of Admiration, addressed to the editor of the *Saturday Review*, by Mr. Alfred Austin, author of 'The Season: a Satire,' and 'My Satire and its Censors.'"

M. Emile Ollivier has just published his speeches, in the form of a pamphlet, which he made during the last session on the "Liberty of the Press," the "Equilibrium of the Budget," and the "Revolution." On the title-page he uses the motto from Dante:—"Liberta vo cercando ch'è sì cara."

It is said that M. Solar is about to publish, at Brussels, a pamphlet containing the most complete details of everything connected with the affairs of the Caisse des Chemins de Fer.

M. Giraud, President of the Institute, has addressed a letter to M. Thiers, informing him that they had sanctioned the Academy's decision conferring on him their decennial prize of 20,000*fr.*, for his "History of the Consulate and the Empire." M. Thiers' reply has also been sent, expressing his high sense of the honour, but stating that he had requested the Academy to devote the money to the encouragement of literature.

On Monday, July 22nd, and the four following days, Messrs. Puttick & Simpson will commence a sale of a large collection of books, including the dramatic collection of two gentlemen—Mr. Horatio Saker, and Mr. J. R. Smith, commonly called Mr. O. Smith. Many of the lots are valuable and interesting, and among them may be mentioned the matchless Garrickiana, autographs, and playbills, formed by the late Mr. O. Smith; a valuable series of original MS. plays by dramatic authors of the beginning of the present century; and of 364 volumes, uniformly bound, of "Classici Italiani"—a collection of Italian standard literature.

The second portion of the sale of M. Guglielmo Libri's library, now on sale, will be continued by Messrs. Sotheby & Wilkinson until Friday next.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS AND NEW EDITIONS.

FROM JULY 12TH TO JULY 18TH.

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| Anne Boleyn. A Tragedy. Demy 8vo. sewed. 5s. Kent & Co. | Metcalfe (Rev. F.). The Oxonian in Iceland. Post 8vo. cloth. 12s. 6d. Longman. |
| Autobiography of Miss C. Knight. Two vols. cloth. Second edition. £1. 6s. W. H. Allen. | McCulloch's (J. M.). Course of Reading. 39th edition. 12mo. cloth. 3s. Simpkin. |
| Beaufort (Emily). Egyptian Sepulchres and Syrian Shrines. Two volumes. Post 8vo. cloth. £1. 5s. Longman. | McKay (Rev. Dr.). The Treatise on Old Age and Friendship of Marcus T. Cicero. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 1s. 6d. Simpkin. |
| Bridges (F.). Phenology made Practical and Popularly Explained. 8vo. cloth. Second edition. 3s. 6d. G. Phillips & Son. | Moore (Thomas). Life Melodies. Moxon & Co., Dover-street. |
| Bowman (Hetty). Life: its Duties and Discipline. 18mo. cloth. New edition. 1s. 6d. Book Society. | Roberts (Rev. A.). Plain Sermons to a Village Congregation. Two vols. post 8vo. Second edition. 10s. Nisbet. |
| Burnside (Rev. W. Smyth). Lex Evangelica. A Reply to Essays & Reviews. 8vo. cloth. 10s. 6d. Hamilton. | Renton (Rev. J.). On Inheriting the Promises. 8vo. 3s. |
| Carter (Charles). Tables of Interest. Crown 8vo. cloth. 5s. Simpkin. | Recent Recollections of the Anglo-American Church in the United States. By an English Layman. Two vols. 8vo. cloth. 18s. Rivington. |
| Carter (T.). Medals of the British Army. Division Second. 8vo. cloth. 7s. 6d. Groombridge. | Seemann (Dr. B.) (Translated by). Rittlitz's Vegetation of the Pacific. Crown 4to. £2. 2s. Longman. |
| Cook (T.). Scottish Tourist's Official Directory. 8vo. cloth boards. 2s. 6d. Tweedie. | Saxby (S. M.). The Projection and Calculation of the Spheres. Post 8vo. cloth. 5s. Longman. |
| Davis (Rev. C. H.). Anti-Essays: the Essays and Reviews of 1860 fallacious and futile. 8vo. sewed. 3s. 6d. Simpkin. | Sherwood (Mrs.). New Story Book. Square 16mo. cloth gilt. 2s. 6d. Darton. |
| Grant (James). Lucy Arden. Feap. 8vo. boards. 2s. Routledge. | Smith (J.). The Revelation. 16mo. cloth. 3s. 6d. Ridgway. |
| Greenwood (T.). Cathedra Petri. Vol. IV. 14s. Thickbroom. | Taylor (Rev. W.) (Translated by). Knie's Guide to the Management and Education of Blind Children. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 1s. 6d. Simpkin. |
| Guizot (M.). Memoirs of my own Times. Vol. IV. 8vo. cloth. 14s. Bentley. | The Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland, by the author of the Religious Tendencies of the Age. 12mo. cloth. 7s. 6d. Saunders & Otley. |
| Hall (Richard Cox). A Series of Tales from the German of Christopher Von Schmid. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 1s. 6d. Simpkin. | The Family Save-All, by the editor of "Enquire Within." 2s. 6d. Kent & Co. |
| Hordern (Rev. J.). Plain Directions for Reading to the Sick. Fourth edition. 1s. 6d. Rivington. | Vere Aubrey (De). The Sisters Inisfail, and other Poems. Feap. 8vo. cloth. 5s. Longman. |
| Lee (Dr. W.). Remarks on Mr. Baden Powell in "Essays and Reviews." 8vo. 5s. Saunders & Otley. | Woods (J.). Elements of the Weather. Demy 8vo. cloth. 10s. Hodgson & Son. |
| Lea (W.). Tables on the Strength and Deflection of Timber. 8vo. cloth. 5s. Weale. | |

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